

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 4, 1878.

The Week.

THE Illinois Republicans held their convention last Wednesday, and though the offices for which nominations were made were unimportant, the meeting was marked by a large attendance and great "harmony" and "enthusiasm." The platform declares the "unflinching faith" of the Illinois Republicans in the party, denounces the Democrats for their "lack of honor and patriotism," shows that they "cannot be safely entrusted with the administration of the affairs of the Government," approves the Republican financial policy, opposes further contraction, and demands a currency to be maintained "at par with and convertible into coin at the will of the holder," and receivable for import duties. It insists on the "permanent pacification" of the Southern States, and the "complete protection" of all citizens "in all their civil, political, personal, and property rights," and promises a vigorous forward movement in the good work, "until peace shall come through right-doing and contentment through justice." There is one plank which proposes a definite plan of action, but this only contemplates an amendment of the criminal code for the protection of savings-bank depositors against dishonest bank managers, and a national campaign can hardly be carried on with this alone. The enthusiasm of the convention appears to have been created partly by the fact that it was what is known as an old-fashioned "rally," and partly by the fact that it was made the means by the Illinois "Stalwarts" of bringing forward Illinois' Favorite Son, General Grant, as the party candidate for 1880. The principal speech was made by Mr. E. A. Storrs, of Chicago, who acquired some celebrity as counsel for General Babcock in the whiskey trial at St. Louis. Mr. Storrs followed the advice given to the party by Mr. James F. Wilson, of Iowa, to "make it hot under the old flag," and concluded with a pointed nomination of General Grant for the Presidency in 1880, with the view of stemming the tide of Communism in the United States, and assuring alike to capital and labor their just reward.

It appears from a good many Republican platforms, and notably from that of the Illinois State Convention, that a state of war still exists in this country, and that there is a body of public enemies encamped on our soil now seeking to seize the Government, and that in order to foil them all other subjects must, and very properly, be neglected. This is now asserted so often, and in so many quarters, and by such very respectable citizens, that though we have been inclined to disbelieve it, we feel that it would be useless to go on denying it any longer. So, therefore, admitting the fact, what we now ask is whether something cannot be done to bring this unnatural struggle to a close? It began in 1861, and is therefore now in its seventeenth year, the longest war on record, except the Peloponnesian, the Thirty Years' War, and the last war of England with France, if we do not count the short peace following the Treaty of Amiens. There is something inexpressibly shocking in its continuance by a Christian people of one blood and one faith, speaking the same language and inheriting the same glorious traditions. Is there not humanity and religion enough left among us to bring the opposing parties together to treat? Why should not the Republicans despatch a commission to the enemy, wherever he is, and see whether, on some terms or other, he will not give up his nefarious designs and go home? We solemnly call the attention of the ministers of the various denominations to this deplorable state of things. As long as they look on in silence they are responsible for every drop of blood shed. It is our duty as Christian men to lay aside

false pride, and seek out the foe and offer him conditions of peace. Not one word is said about this in the Republican conventions, but this is doubtless due to the prevailing ignorance about the theatre of the war. This can readily be got over by the offer of a small reward. Indeed, we do not doubt that \$500 would procure a revelation of the exact situation of the hostile camp.

In the mass of contradiction and equivocation which makes up the body of the evidence taken by the Potter Committee it is a satisfaction to come upon any testimony which is clear and to the point. This seems to be the marked trait of that given by Mr. Noyes last Friday. Mr. Noyes's name was made prominent in the resolution authorizing the enquiry, and it was at least fair to suppose that the Democrats had some plausible grounds for suspicion before they compelled a man of his position and a representative of the country abroad to come home to exculpate himself from charges of election frauds. Mr. Noyes declared at the outset that he went to Florida without Mr. Hayes's knowledge; that during his stay there he never communicated with Mr. Hayes, except on the occasion of his telegraphing to him the decision of the Returning Board; that before the Returning Board pronounced its decision he had no private conversation with McLin on any subject, never saw him alone, and made no pledges, promises, or assurances of any kind; that he advised him to do his duty fairly and impartially. He declared, further, that the Republicans made out such a strong case in Florida as would satisfy "any unprejudiced court in Christendom." After the Returning Board's decision McLin represented to him that his position was desperate, and asked him to intercede with Mr. Hayes and try to get him an office. This Mr. Noyes said he did do. Mr. Noyes also read two letters from McLin which corroborated these statements. General Lew Wallace, who was with Mr. Noyes in Florida, also testified to the same effect; but his relations with McLin seem to have been not quite as much above suspicion. He swore that on one occasion McLin told him that Manton Marble had said that there was no reason why he should remain a "poor man" if Tilden became President, to which Mr. Wallace replied that if Hayes were elected he would take care of his friends, too. This declaration the general says he did not make with any corrupt purpose, and he maintains that there was a great difference between Marble's proposition and his own, because McLin and he belonged to the same party, while Marble was a Democrat. This shows that the general is a little confused as to the connection between morals and politics. It is only fair to Mr. Marble, by the way, to say that he denies utterly having used the language attributed to him by McLin. A brother of Anderson's "pal," Weber, has testified to his own entire falseness as a witness before the Senate Committee a year ago, and also that he found the Sherman letter and destroyed it, knowing it to be genuine.

We frequently took occasion during the last Presidential campaign, as our readers will bear us witness, to caution all whom it might concern against giving too much credence to stories of Southern political outrages. Our reasons were that in the condition of Southern society outrages were frequently committed by all sorts of persons, and that negro testimony was always easily procurable by party friends for any purpose. A remarkable illustration of the truth of these observations is furnished by the recent developments in the Eliza Pinkston case, which convulsed the country two years ago. Eliza Pinkston, it will be remembered, was a negress who was carried before the Returning Board and the "Visiting Statesmen" to testify to a horrible outrage committed in Ouachita Parish by a party of Democrats, resulting in the death of her husband and her own shocking mutilation. She testified that this was done on account of the Republican politics of the Pinkston household. She has now

made an affidavit to the effect that she was induced to give this evidence by promises of reward held out by O. H. Brewster (a Republican elector) and one Dinkgrave; that she was paid \$500 for her testimony; that her husband, Pinkston, never took any part in politics, and had never given any offence to any person on account of politics; that the murder was in no way connected with politics; that she has every reason to think that one of the persons engaged in the killing was a colored man with whom her husband had had a fight; that she was brought from her home and instructed to testify so as to lay all the blame of the killing on the Democrats, and to pretend that her wounds were more serious than they actually were and that she could not walk, when as a matter of fact she could walk very well; that she was induced to be carried on a sofa into the room where the Returning Board were, although she had just walked a part of the way up-stairs; and finally that, previous to giving her testimony, she was visited by John Sherman and other "Visiting Statesmen," and that they had ample opportunity to know what her real condition was. Still another affidavit has been made by the stenographer to the Democratic "Visiting Statesmen," who swears that on the evening of the day on which Eliza Pinkston gave her testimony he saw and heard Sherman conversing in one of the rooms of the St. Charles Hotel, and heard him "laugh hilariously" about the Pinkston testimony, and remark to a third person that "it was laughable to see how Governor Bigler had taken in the whole thing," and make other remarks from which he understood Sherman "to be rejoicing over the successful imposition of Pinkston's action and testimony."

Two bills to create a Pacific Railroad Commission are left pending by the adjournment of Congress. Both of them appoint Messrs. C. F. Adams, Jr., Albert Fink, of Kentucky, and Judge Cooley, of Michigan, Commissioners. The Senate's bill is merely one of enquiry. The House bill gives them general supervisory power over all the roads receiving Government aid; makes it their duty to inform themselves of the condition of the roads, the manner of running them, their rates, and so forth. This bill is, we believe, based on the statute creating the Massachusetts commission, which has produced such excellent results in that State. The Commissioners are well selected. Mr. Adams is the head of the only railroad commission in the country whose reports are weighty and valuable contributions to the solution of the great railroad problems; Mr. Fink's standing is well known all over the country, and Judge Cooley is a lawyer of excellent repute. There is a good deal of reason to hope that this measure, or one like it, will be passed next winter. The plan of the Commission at the start avoids two great stumbling blocks which have wrecked so many State boards. In the first place, the selection of its members is not left to political intrigue; and in the second, it is not directed to attempt the impossible task of reorganizing the railroad system which it is to supervise, fixing its freight and passenger tariff, or in any way assuming its management. Its duties will be merely those of enlightened supervision, and its main reliance will be not on the strong arm of the Government, but on what has always proved in the long run the sure eradicator of all railroad abuses—publicity.

The success of the Kearneyites in carrying a very large number, if not a majority, of the delegates to the California Constitutional Convention has taken the public and press of that State completely by surprise. There were, it seems, six tickets in the field, including the Republican, the Democratic, and a fusion ticket made up of both of these. The Kearney party is out-and-out Communistic, though the platform on which it carried the election was much more conservative than the bloodthirsty and revolutionary talk of Kearney himself would give any one the right to suppose; it will have, if it controls the Convention, the task before it of remodelling an American constitution in the interest of communistic ideas. This has never been attempted before, and will present problems of some magnitude. It seems clear that the victory of the Kearney party is due in great measure to accident, and does not by any means indicate that Com-

munistism has yet become a really popular movement in California. It has been a violently anti-Chinese movement, the hope of driving the Chinaman out of the labor market having helped to make the vision of a Communistic Utopia doubly sweet to California workingmen.

The scene of the Indian disturbances in the Northwest, which unpleasantly recall the Nez-Perce campaign just a year ago, is in Eastern Oregon, from Klamath Lake to the Idaho border, and even to the Camas Prairie, of evil memory. This time the Bannocks are the leaders, and they have drawn large numbers of allies from the numerous tribes inhabiting this broad area. On Sunday week the hostiles were overtaken near Camp Curry by Colonel Bernard, charged upon, and defeated with the loss of the camp and of a significant number of braves; but they saved their immense stock and continued their march northward towards the headwaters of the John Day River, where the settlements have already been invaded by them. General Howard, who has joined Colonel Bernard, had anticipated that this would be the line of advance, and as he had directed the movement of other troops with a view to it, another battle is imminent. There is, as usual, too much reason to believe that this outbreak could have been prevented by just dealing with the Indians. In fact, General Crook, their successful opponent on more than one hard-fought field, has openly declared that the Bannocks, when he visited them at their reservation last spring, were in a starving condition, which naturally drove them to desperate measures for relief. Congress had been derelict in making appropriations for their support, but at best they were only half supplied, and for half the year were turned out to pick up a subsistence as best they could. In short, we are having a fresh illustration of the cost of Congressional economy, which, when applied to the Indians, has always the effect of giving full employment to the army which has just been pronounced useless, and of running up bills for transportation vastly in excess of the sum needed to feed the Indians to satiety.

The preparation and delivery of instructions to our delegates to the International Monetary Conference have made much stir at the State Department, the Commissioners having been summoned to Washington to undergo the ceremony. The net result was the giving of a dinner to three of them—the fourth, Mr. S. Dana Horton, who is named in the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill as Secretary of the Commission, not being present. It is now promised that the instructions will be forwarded to the Commissioners before their departure, and that the substance of them will be that they shall represent in a forcible manner to the monetary experts of Europe the state of public sentiment in this country with reference to the double standard. This will be extremely helpful to the Conference, and it is to be hoped that Mr. Evarts will give all the powers of his mind to the composition of the paper. The absence of Mr. Horton is looked upon as injurious, and the method of his appointment as even more so. The original act of Congress providing for the Commission did not authorize a secretary. After the Commission had been appointed it was deemed important to send somebody along to "coach" them in the French language, and to lend a helping hand in the matter of political economy. Accordingly the Senate adopted an amendment to the Sundry Civil Bill providing for a secretary and two or more clerks. The House struck this out for the alleged reason that the character of the appointments already made did not justify the creation of new offices to be filled by the same appointing power. The conference of the two houses settled the matter by striking out the clerkships and naming Mr. S. Dana Horton as Secretary. Mr. Horton has not yet accepted the appointment. He may possibly be in doubt whether he should send his acceptance to Secretary Evarts or to Speaker Randall.

The end of the fiscal year for the U. S. Treasury makes a comparison with a year ago interesting. The public debt was reduced during the year \$24,371,391, against \$39,281,121 during the fiscal year ending July 1, 1877. The coin balance of the Treasury was

\$197,415,132, against \$115,122,473 then, or, less coin-certificates issued to the owners of coin left for safe keeping with the Treasury, \$151,585,532, against \$73,549,873 on July 1, 1877. The legal-tender note circulation was \$346,681,016 (which, in view of recent legislation, must be accepted as the minimum for the future), against \$359,764,332 a year before. The fractional currency was reduced during the year from \$20,403,137 to \$16,547,760, and the silver coin outstanding was increased from \$33,088,813 to \$39,057,083. The special legal-tender note fund for the redemption of fractional currency was filled up from \$7,963,213 to \$10,000,000. While the changes are for the most part satisfactory, they are not nearly so favorable as they might have been, or would have been except for the pernicious effect of the silver agitation on our credit, as shown by the return of bonds from Europe—a movement which was at flood-tide early in April. The foreign trade of the country for the first eleven months of the fiscal year was favorable in a marvellous degree for the improvement of the Treasury finances. The exports of domestic merchandise amounted to \$647,948,000, while the imports of foreign goods were valued at \$401,420,000, leaving an excess of \$245,528,000; the excess for the corresponding time in the preceding fiscal year was \$155,877,000. The excess for the eleven months of the last fiscal year furnished the Treasury with an opportunity for putting the currency on a gold basis such as seldom comes even in the lifetime of a nation. As it was, it prevented the country from being well-nigh ruined by the blundering course of legislation on silver, and permitted the improvements noted. During the week silver has fallen in London to 52½d. to 52¼d. per ounce, and at the close of the week the bullion value of the new silver dollar was only \$0.8855. Gold closed at 100½, making the gold value of the U. S. legal-tender note \$0.99375. U. S. bonds were "strong to buoyant" on the demand to employ money in securities that, whatever may be their ultimate value, are always available as a means to get cash.

The condition and result of the negotiations at Berlin are pretty fully discussed in another part of our columns. There is, as will be seen, little to add to our summary of last week except that Rumania and Montenegro have been declared independent, according to the Russian programme, the latter receiving an accession of territory, though not as much as the Treaty of San Stefano provided for. Rumania gets the Dobrukscha and loses Bessarabia, also in strict accordance with the Russian programme, but it is still doubtful whether Russia will get Batum. To crown all, Austria is to occupy Bosnia and Herzegovina as long as she pleases and organize them as she thinks best, a result long ago foreshadowed, and which practically detaches these provinces from the Turkish Empire. The form of trying to persuade Turkey to accept these little changes is now going on, and the Turk is making a show of resistance, just as Lord Beaconsfield made a show of deploring the persistence of Russia in taking Bessarabia, and Prince Gortchakoff of pain at the amount of concession Russia has made. A correspondent exposes in another column the delusory character of the famous calling in of the Indian troops. In fact, the whole performance of resistance to Russia now begins to wear the look of a peculiarly bold piece of jugglery, and it remains to be seen whether the Tories can really put up with it.

The recognition by the Congress of the independence of Rumania and Serbia has been made, it is said, dependent on the concession of complete civil rights to the Jews resident in these countries. A memorial was presented to the Congress on their behalf by delegates of the Universal Israelite Alliance, which set forth that in Serbia they had been expelled from the country districts and most of the cities, excluded from all offices and callings, and reduced to misery, and that under this régime their number had diminished one-half. In Rumania, they say, they have been for the last two years exposed to the most cruel persecution, and constantly made the victims of murders, riots, plunder, and expulsion, and have by a series of laws been excluded from all the liberal professions, from

all public offices, and from numerous branches of trade, and severe restrictions put on their public worship. It must not be supposed, however, that this persecution, which really has been ferocious, both in Serbia and Rumania, has been due to the religious fanaticism of the Christians. It is due mainly to the fact that the Jews have long been the only portion of the population engaged in trade and money-lending, and have practised usury both in giving credit and making loans to a degree unknown elsewhere, and only possible among a purely agricultural peasantry and an extravagant and idle upper class. The extent to which they had put the community literally under bonds would appear incredible in the West if the figures were known, and the fury against them is that of the "debtor class" against "Shylocks" and "gold sharks."

The probable effect of the news of the decisions of the Congress at Constantinople is now looked for with some interest, though hardly with anxiety. When the first Conference met in that city the Sultan was able to defend himself against a good many exactions by pleading his fear of the Mussulman mob, but the mob has proved most disappointingly tranquil and resigned, and the volcanic fanaticism which was under certain circumstances to cause a general rising of the true believers has not shown itself. The Sultan has, in the meantime, been trying every variety of combination in the formation of ministries, having appointed as many as seven different vizirs in six months, and he will probably keep on changing in the same way. A broken-down debauchee, with his nerves shattered, and bullied by the women of his harem, he of course makes and remakes cabinets as a child would, through momentary pet or caprice, and the folly of making treaties with him the execution of which is of any importance to Christendom becomes daily more apparent. The malcontents seem to have fixed their hopes so firmly on Murad, the deposed brother, and make him the object of so much intrigue and sedition, that he will probably before long commit "suicide."

The German Reichstag has been dissolved, and the election of the new one is to take place on the 30th inst. The motion for the dissolution made at the Federal Council by the Ministry attributes it to the necessity of appealing to the country on the Socialist question. The late Parliament would not give the Government the necessary powers to deal with the problem, but it was believed the new one would act differently. The liberty of the press and the right of meeting are to be restrained, and passport regulations more rigidly enforced. The revelations made by the police investigation in the Nobiling case are said to be alarming, but they have not been communicated to the public. The Crown Prince acts as Regent during the Emperor's disability, but it is of course doubtful whether, even in case of his recovery, the old man will again be able to attend to business. A great many arrests and convictions for the use of disloyal language about the Emperor have taken place, but it will be surprising, and indeed unprecedented, if these measures do not aggravate the evil.

The overthrow of the Clerical Party in the Belgian Parliament after bearing sway for seven years would have excited a real sensation in Europe if the Berlin Conference were not absorbing public attention. The Belgian Government has been of late the only one of which the Ultramontanes managed to keep hold, and they owed their success to the powerful influence of the Catholic clergy over the peasantry, and their active and even fierce interference in elections. Their majority in the chambers was small before the late election, only four in the Senate and six in the House, but it was sufficient and appeared impregnable, and produced extraordinary insolence of language on the part of the clerical deputies, which the Minister, M. Malou, deplored, but could not repress. The result has been a reaction giving the Liberals a majority of six in the Senate and ten in the House, and M. Frère-Orban, who is well known as an economist, goes into office at their head. The Pope is now left without a single government which pays any attention to the recent Papal pretensions.

THE DEMOCRATIC DESIGNS.

THE investigation into the Florida and Louisiana counts has gone far enough, and is evidently sufficiently near its end, to verify very fully our earliest prediction as to the probable course and probable object of the proceeding. It has not greatly damaged anybody, and has not cleared anybody of any thing of which impartial observers suspected him. It has simply confirmed the popular belief that the persons who carried on the Republican governments at the South from 1868 down to 1876 were unscrupulous adventurers of very low character, who were quite capable of doing the worst thing they have been accused of. Dennis, of Florida, for instance, in his late examination did not admit that they had wrongfully given the State to Hayes, but he admitted, with much naïveté, that when they suspected the Visiting Statesmen of not caring what became of the State offices provided they secured the electoral vote for the Republicans, they determined, if this proved true, to give it to Tilden. It has shown, too, that it was a very serious thing for the American people to have their Presidency lying for three months in the hands, and, indeed in the gift, of such men as McLin and Dennis and Anderson and Wells, and that no respectable Republican could or should have approached them or had any private dealings with them without exposing himself to grave imputations. That it would, however, bring any actual corruption home to the Visiting Statesmen was from the first very unlikely, both because these Statesmen were too shrewd to commit themselves in writing, and because the oral testimony of these scamps, even when they "confessed," was sure to be received by the public with incredulity. The Stanley-Matthews letters were a genuine surprise, and so was the news of the so-called "Sherman letter." But even the Sherman letter, if produced, would not be conclusive, any more than the Matthews letters, because it would, like them, be capable of being interpreted as a promise to reward courageous officials for having done their duty, and in this view the badness of their character would not be a sufficient refutation.

At the same time the enquiry has not, as some of the Republican papers have been cheerfully assuring us, vindicated anybody. It has not raised the Visiting Statesmen in anybody's estimation. One can readily understand a good man's closeting himself with a knave, for he may be exhorting him to the practice of virtue; but when immediately afterwards a suspicious act of the knave's puts a sum of money in the good man's pocket, or gives him a good office, the testimony of the knave about the particulars of the interview puts the good man just where he stood before. The public at best drops a tear over the transaction and directs its attention in sorrowful silence to some other subject. The President has certainly come out harmless, as regards any attempt to influence the count by any bargain with or promise to the counters; but his readiness to use the civil service to reward them, whether for having done their duty or not having done it, was not what we had a right to expect from a Republican officer who held the Cincinnati Platform and the Letter of Acceptance smoking hot in his hands. The general result is a ridiculous failure, if we regard the investigation as the first step in a bloody revolution; but tolerably successful if we regard it as simply furnishing materials for a campaign document containing very unsavory details about the class of men whom the Republicans upheld for seven years in the government of the Southern States, and whom, at a most important crisis in the nation's history, prominent Republican chiefs were not ashamed to counsel and co-operate with and reward.

That it will have any serious effect on the fall elections is, however, very unlikely. That is to say that, while it may not have convinced anybody that the Republicans were guilty of fraud at the Presidential election, it has not convinced anybody that they were not guilty who had previously thought them guilty. It probably leaves the whole matter in the public mind just where it was. The number of persons who think the Democrats ought to come into power will probably be very little, if at all, increased by it, nor will the number of those who think the Democrats cannot safely be entrusted with power be sensibly lessened by it. The Democrats have

probably suffered somewhat by the failure of the investigation to prove the "greatest fraud of the age"; but, on the other hand, the Republicans have suffered through the manifest disinclination of the investigators to "inaugurate a bloody revolution." The Republicans would have profited by Mr. Hayes's clearance from complicity with the counters, if he had been really liked or supported by them; but their recent course towards him prevents the goodness of his character from reflecting any credit on them.

But the fact is that both parties have already begun to look forward to the next Presidential election, and the investigation and legislation and everything else have reference to that. To any one who believes this, the notion the Republicans are trying to spread, that the Democrats will, if they obtain a majority in both Houses in the next Congress, at once enter on desperate courses, and prepare to pay for the slaves, repudiate the public debt, and replace all the rebel officers in the army, is simply wild. The Democrats have not shown much political sagacity during the past fifteen years, but they have during the past two years shown a considerable increase of it. The return of the Southern element to their councils has plainly steadied them, and it will be observed that not one dreadful thing have they ventured on in which they were not sure of Republican help, and not one odious or alarming piece of legislation have they passed which could have been passed without Republican assistance. They are not likely to grow more foolish during the next two years; on the contrary, they are likely to grow wiser, and it is very improbable indeed that they will venture on any measure, or series of measures, which would in 1880 bring the whole North to the polls in fury against them; such, for instance, as an enormous addition to the national debt to pay for slaves, or a great national disgrace, or financial convulsion, such as would be caused by a failure to provide for the public debt. On the contrary, they will probably try and march up to the canvass of 1880 with the air of fair-minded and moderate men, who would not hurt a hair of the national head, but who have been grossly slandered and foully cheated, and carrying with them the martyred Tilden on a litter.

They are the more likely to play this part, even if it were not the one obviously dictated by the commonest prudence, by the growing signs of a disposition on the part of the Republican managers to bring General Grant into the field again as a candidate for a third term. These managers are evidently trying to find support for this otherwise amazing proposal by imputing alleged revolutionary and dangerous schemes to the Democrats, and nothing but a firm popular belief in these charges could give the General a chance of success. But this *would* give him a chance of success. People would say that the scandals of Grant's administration were no doubt great, and his capacity as a civil ruler small, but that if the very existence of the Government was again to be put in peril his defects would be as nothing compared to his merits as a defender of social order. In short, people would turn to him, as other peoples have turned when they have made up their minds that their government was a failure, not as a statesman, but as a soldier who would know how to knock the turbulent on the head. Without this, on the contrary, the Republicans will be considerably embarrassed. They have not a single Favorite Son who is not in some way discredited and out of the question as a candidate, and we believe the "First Choices" even, who are an inferior kind of Favorite Son, might be counted on the fingers of one hand. So that, unless they can put up General Grant as a Saviour of Society, they will be sorely puzzled to know what to do. The experience the managers have had of Hayes is likely to make them exceedingly cautious about trying another good, obscure man, so as to impose on "the theorists," and the production of any one of their own number would leave them at the mercy of the Democrats, who would only have to present—we say only, and yet it is hardly possible they will have the grace to do it—a man of high character and ability like Mr. Bayard to sweep away from the Republicans the few independent thousands to whom, after all, either party must owe its victory. For the election of Grant is not, we feel sure, possible in even a tolerably tranquil time. Now, when people's pride is touched by seeing him fêted as a

national military hero by the haughty despots and pampered nobles of Europe, the shortcomings of his administration are half forgotten; but the picture of the "Old Man" and his companions at the White House which the campaign would produce, and the correctness of which could not be gainsaid, would make his defeat as certain, and almost as crushing, as that of the lamented Greeley.

"THE PUBLIC LAW OF EUROPE."

DURING the earlier part of the Russo-Turkish struggle the policy of Great Britain, as defined by Lord Derby, towards the combatants consisted simply in the protection of "British interests," and these interests, at the request of Russia, he defined, and the Russians promised not to meddle with them, and in point of fact did not meddle with them as thus defined. At the close of the struggle the sudden change in this policy was announced which drove Lord Derby out of the cabinet, and England was made to stand forth as "the defender of the public law of Europe," and to readers of the Government organs it was curious to see how neatly and deftly the change of front was effected. It was accompanied, too, by a curious elevation of tone. Of course a defender of "the public law of Europe" necessarily stood on higher moral ground than a mere protector of the route to India, and the language of the Ministry and its supporters accordingly began to have the air of a comminatory sermon, because the moral rise of England involved the increased moral degradation of Russia. That Power was sufficiently odious as a threatener of "British interests," but as an assailant of "the public law of Europe," which to most of the "Jingoes" was about as intelligible as "that blessed word Mesopotamia," she excited a holier as well as deeper reprobation; this last "dodge," too, as Mr. Bright called it, appears to have really touched the French imagination and excited great admiration of Lord Beaconsfield, even in such men as Gambetta. The particular portion of the public law of Europe which England was defending was said to be the inviolability of treaties without the consent of all the parties to them; but nobody has ever been able to tell when this became the law, because, as has been frequently pointed out, every treaty made since 1815 has been violated without the consent of the Powers which made it and without any protest on that ground from England until 1871. This fact alone made Lord Beaconsfield's new rôle an odd one, but it became odder when the Congress met. The "public law of Europe" is described as a moral code intended to be obeyed by all the states of Europe, and having their happiness and security for its object. In making or changing it, therefore, it was natural to expect that the English political moralists would insist on the participation of all the states in the Congress without reference to the amount of brute force at their command, and that certainly those of the smaller Powers, such as Greece and Rumania and Servia, which are directly interested in the Treaty now under discussion, and those of them, such as Denmark, Holland, and the Scandinavian states, which are exposed to danger from the cupidity and ambition of powerful neighbors, would be allowed to aid in the amendment of the common code. Nothing of the kind, however, appears to have occurred to the English Ministry. The Congress was, with their consent, composed simply of the Powers having the largest armies and able to kill the most people in order to have their way, so that the public law of Europe would seem to be simply a fine name for the will of the strongest.

But this is not all. We pointed out a fortnight ago the fact that the modifications in the public law of Europe to which England consents, without regard to the wishes of Turkey, are fully as great in their effect on Turkey as those imposed on Turkey by Russia. She loses, with English connivance, the possession of Bulgaria and the direct government of Rumelia, leaving her nothing worth mention in Europe except the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, with which it was one of the complaints of Lord Salisbury's circular the Treaty of San Stefano left her no adequate means of communication. But now the news has come that Austria is to be permitted to occupy these provinces also, with what force she pleases and for

an indefinite period, and to organize them in such manner as she thinks best. This, of course, as any one can see, amounts in practice to annexation. The provinces pass under Austrian rule, and will never be restored to Turkey; the longer they remain separated from her, the less willing would the civilized world be to see them given back to the Porte. So that Turkey in Europe has virtually ceased to exist. Constantinople and the patch of territory around it cannot, in the nature of things, be held very long by an effete monarchy and a declining and barbarous race. Now, Turkey either deserves this fate or she does not. If she does, what term are we to apply to the attitude of the English Tories towards Russia during the bloody and costly war by which all this wreck and ruin has been brought about? What to the gross vituperation of the Russian Government and people, and the gross eulogies on the Turks which made Osman Pasha too good company for a Russian Grand Duke, and made the wretches—as foul, most of them, in their origin as in their career—who compose the Constantinople Government do duty for a whole year as "an oppressed nationality"? If she does not deserve it, and this partition, in its completeness closely resembling that of Poland, is simply a remorseless use of superiority of force, what are we to think of the defence of the "public law of Europe" on which the Beaconsfield Ministry has been engaged since last April?

The final overthrow of the Turks will be a source of gratification to every one who knows anything about them and hates oppression, and they and their odious tyranny will soon be forgotten; but we doubt very much whether the world will as readily forget the extraordinary way in which the English people have allowed themselves to be led and duped in this matter by a man who possesses none of the traditional and customary holds on their confidence, and who possesses in a marked degree the characteristics of the Imperialist type of political adventurer. Those who most admire his talents have never pretended that during his long political career he has made the slightest pretence to convictions on any subject, and his most prominent moral and mental traits are such as have always been supposed to be peculiarly odious to the English country gentleman. Nevertheless he has managed to obtain the control of the national resources, the unusual friendship of the Queen, and the admiration and devotion of society, almost with ease, and to retain them while carrying on negotiations and uttering diplomatic threats of the most transparent charlatanry, and heaping abuse on a sovereign people whose friendship it is obviously English interest to cultivate. The effect of the whole transaction cannot but be to lower the foreign estimate of the moral tone of English "society."

THE RACE AT NEW LONDON.

NEW LONDON, June 28, 1878.

THE race rowed this morning on the river Thames marks an epoch in the history of American college-rowing. Down to the present time this history has been mainly one of experiments. No novelty has been left untried in boats, water, crews, steering, or courses. We have seen boats of wood superseded by boats of paper; races in fresh and races in salt water; crews of six without a coxswain developing into crews of eight with one; courses with a turn changing to straightaway courses, and a plain college race swollen into a "grand, intercollegiate aquatic tournament," and again voluntarily reduced to a college race again. If in "boating," as in the world at large, history is philosophy teaching by example, enough examples have been accumulated in the last twenty-five years of American racing to furnish us with a very complete philosophy of the subject. And this, I think, was the general impression after the race this morning—a prevalent feeling that now at last something final had been reached; that it was at length settled that the true and only form for future challenges between the two leading American colleges would necessarily be for a straightaway four-mile race for eight-oared shells on the New London course.

The advantages of New London as a place for seeing a race are so obvious that it is hardly necessary to recapitulate them. For any aquatic contest in which Harvard and Yale are alone concerned, it is the most natural ground for meeting. Of the course too much can hardly be said. It is nearly straight along its whole length, and in ordinarily

fair weather there is no reason to be afraid of the condition of the water. The finish is some three miles from the river's mouth, and there are no high mountains to bring down sudden squalls. Besides all this the admirable arrangements of the citizens' committee kept the water clear of boats, and the flagging of the course made fouling almost an impossibility. Then, no course could be more favorable for employing the American invention of a movable Grand Stand (first tried, I believe, along the lake shore at Ithaca), consisting of a train of flat cars arranged with tiers of seats like those in a theatre. Every one who has followed a race in a boat, unless it be on a piece of water so large as to afford a space which no river can give, knows that it is an amusement which is pursued under many disadvantages. In the first place, there are all sorts of rules and regulations to be observed, which, in the second place, are not usually observed at all. The result is apt to be a great deal of confusion and considerable danger of collision. Besides this, the boats get away from all but the fastest steamers at the start, and when they are overtaken only a foreshortened view of them can be obtained, and it is unnecessary to say that in a foreshortened view of a fairly close race the spectator is lucky if he can tell which boat is ahead, and as for any notion as to "form" or the details of the stroke, it is out of the question. All those difficulties were removed at New London by the moving Grand Stand. A locomotive, of course, easily keeps the spectator abreast of the boats, and the bank of the river is so near the course that most of the race can be seen from the cars quite as easily as a performance can be witnessed from the gallery of a large theatre. With a good glass I think an expert would have had at the end of the race a very good idea of the style not merely of each crew, but of every man in each crew. The committee which had the press in charge, perhaps because the locomotive stand was an experiment, put the representatives of the newspapers on a press-boat. The result of its voyage showed, I think, the justice of the above observations; for a little way down the river this craft, freighted with the hopes and ambitions of a whole battalion of the most imaginative observers of this or any country, had a collision with a steamer from New York, and nearly capsized. The proper place for the press in the future will certainly be the cars, from which the race can really be seen. With regard to the cars themselves, they furnished, when in motion, not only an advantageous but a comfortable place of observation. A marked proof of the careful attention to details on the part of the local management was afforded by the distribution of printed notices among the passengers of the projected movements of the train, and a Bulletin of the race giving all sorts of valuable information. The traditions of our railroad system, except on the New London & Northern Railroad, require that the passenger should be kept in ignorance as to the intentions of the company with regard to their disposition of his person and effects, and this fact alone would make the New London movable stand remarkable in the history of transportation as well as racing.

The race this year was a very one-sided affair. Harvard had the best crew got together for many years, and the result was a complete demonstration of the carefulness and thoroughness of the training they had received at the hands of their excellent coach, Mr. Watson, and captain, Mr. Bancroft. It is difficult to know exactly what to say of the Yale boat. In material the two crews were not unfairly matched. The average weight of Harvard was not very different from that of Yale. But it was clear from the first stroke that Yale could not win. Not much can be inferred as to the pulling from the time made, for the race was rowed down stream on a fast-running ebb-tide. Harvard's time was nearly four minutes, and Yale's over three minutes, better than Harvard's winning time at Springfield last year; but the one remarkable feature of the Yale rowing that must have impressed itself on the mind of any one who went down the river abreast of the boats, was the extraordinary badness of its appearance. Of course, a very bad-looking stroke may be a very strong stroke, though with amateurs who have the benefit of all the traditions on the subject of "form" the presumption is against it; but the Yale stroke, if that may be called a stroke which every man pulled differently, looked like a weak as well as an ugly stroke. The faults observable, moreover, were not such as reveal themselves on minute inspection, but were elementary. Every oar appeared to be pulled with a different weight; the finish of the stroke was managed at haphazard; the "hang" at the beginning of the stroke was so marked as to suggest an unwillingness to row at all; some of the men appeared to pull with their arms rather than their whole bodies, and number four pulled a stroke of his own, from the beginning of the race to the end, which had hardly more apparent connection with that of the other seven than if he had been in another boat. While their oars took

the water with a certain amount of regularity, the action of their bodies suggested the favorite English comparison of a "chime of bells." At the end of the stroke several of them lashed the water up in a manner fearful to behold.

Now, it is perfectly safe to say that no crew composed of such material, turned out by a college like Yale, ought to present such an appearance on the water. The faults of the Harvard Crew could not, without a glass, be easily detected. That they had faults is quite certain. Those that were most conspicuous were that the whole crew were rather "short," and that, while the time of the oars was fairly good, there was a marked deficiency in swing and finish, and a sluggishness in getting the hands off the chest, while one of the crew had a very bad trick of meeting his oar. But to ninety-nine hundredths of the crowd that came to see the race they appeared absolutely perfect. Young girls who had never seen eight men in a boat before were quite wild with delight over the fact that they all pulled a uniform stroke. Uniformity in stroke, however, is not the last touch, but one of the rudiments of the art.

The question as to why a boat loses a particular race is usually one of those delicate problems which had better be left for settlement to those most immediately concerned; but when a race is lost as this was, from the start, it is impossible not to venture a guess or two as to its causes. The difference between the two crews looked to an outsider like the difference between training and the want of it, between experience and skilful adaptation of means to end and untrained emulation of it. Whether this was the real cause or not, the race of last Friday would have ended in precisely the way it did and looked precisely as it did if Yale's defeat had been due to bad training and discipline. If it can be imagined that Yale had placed her fate in the hands of a coach or captain who had an abiding conviction of his own skill, combined with a remarkable lack of ability to impress upon a crew any systematic form, and great over-confidence in his power to win a race by sheer pluck, it would not be difficult to explain the easy victory of Harvard on Friday. Whether it is Mr. Cook who is responsible for it or not, we do not pretend to know; but clearly some one was responsible.

The race would of course have been more interesting if it had been closer, but as it was it was a great success. The problem of American college races seems at length to have been solved. It will not do to have them at Worcester, for there is no straightaway course; nor at Springfield, for there is not room enough; nor at Saratoga, for it is too far off, and the water cannot be counted on. To the New London course there seems to be absolutely no objection, and it is safe to predict that the Harvard-Yale regatta will be rowed here hereafter. The management of the race was so good this year that there are few criticisms to be made. The moving stand, however, is capable of improvement. When in motion the breeze made by the cars prevented it from being uncomfortably hot; but before the start, the heat for those who had to secure seats by sitting in them was far from agreeable. All the cars ought to be provided with awnings; and the seats ought to be numbered and reserved, so that the spectator need not get aboard till the last moment, nor be obliged, in order to make sure of his seat, to sit in it for a couple of hours before the race begins.

In conclusion, it may be worth while to call attention to the fact that the race this year has conclusively demonstrated the wisdom of the change from the inter-collegiate tournament to the plain Yale-Harvard race. The notion that this race is not sufficiently interesting to draw a crowd without the assistance of Brown and Princeton and the rest of the minor colleges is now effectually dissipated. Probably twice as many people as ever have really witnessed a boat-race in America saw that at New London, and saw it ten times as well as ever before. The thing that draws the crowd is, after all, the desire to see the two best-known American colleges—the "crack" American colleges—have a trial of strength. It was in this desire that American college-rowing had its origin, and it is through it that the American university race has reached its present importance in the annual national sports.

THE ANGLO-RUSSIAN AGREEMENT.

LONDON, June 16, 1878.

EIGHT weeks ago I was talking with a political friend in the South of France about the prospects of peace or war between Russia and England. It was at the most critical time during the last six months—a time when the relations of the two nations were strained to the utmost, and when, not only in this country but in every country in Europe, it was expected that war might break out at any moment. Our conversation turned on

the chances of Russia giving way to the demands of the British Cabinet and consenting to yield the point on which we insisted—namely, that the Treaty of San Stefano should be tabled in its entirety. My friend had every facility for knowing the turnings and twistings of the diplomatic game and had recently been in communication with some of the most accomplished proficient in that game. He said, in answer to my question as to what he thought would be the upshot of the whole business: "You may depend upon it there will be no war. Russia will yield in point of form. We shall yield the substance." Till two days ago I thought my friend had merely indulged in the habitual cynicism of English critics when talking of the diplomacy of their country. The days have passed into weeks since he spoke, and the weeks have formed themselves into months, and during all those days and weeks and months many English people have been living in a fool's paradise. We have been told by all our newspapers, and by all the club-gossips, and by all the talkers in society that Lord Beaconsfield has triumphed, that Russia has "knocked under," and that our Prime Minister, mounted on his war steed "Jingo," has brought the Muscovite to his knees and has resettled the map of Europe. Eight days ago, when Lord Beaconsfield and his private secretary started from Charing Cross Railway Station (which was dressed in imperial crimson for the occasion) for Berlin in a special train, he was at the pinnacle of his prosperity. A body-guard of the most warlike and demonstrative of his supporters in Parliament accompanied him to his carriage, and the old man went away upon his triumphal march as happy as a *débutante* when she has been for the first time called before the curtain. There was not one of those enthusiastic gentlemen but believed that Russia was trampled under the feet of "Jingo," and that their idol of the moment was cantering gaily over his prostrate body.

They have changed their tone to-day—those of them, at least, who believe that the remarkable state paper which came to light the day before yesterday is authentic. If this paper, which, strange to say, has been published through the agency of a leading ministerialist journal, really is authentic—and there is every reason to believe it is—then my friend of eight weeks ago was a good deal nearer the truth of the matter than the newspapers, and club-gossips, and society talkers of yesterday. The paper purports to be a sort of contract between Russia and England as to the modifications of the San Stefano treaty which are demanded and agreed to as between those two Powers, and it is binding as between those Powers, though it does not commit any of the other Powers assembled in Congress. And what is the upshot of it? The upshot is very much what my friend said it would be. Russia has put herself right in point of form and our diplomatists have gained a sort of verbal victory. But it is a victory of the Cadmean kind, which has left the vanquished stronger than the victors. Russia, with the consent of England, secures all, or nearly all, the material points she asked; and England, if she has secured anything at all, has secured the partial rehabilitation of the Turkish Empire and the grave and dangerous responsibility of keeping that Empire in order. If this is a triumph to any one it is a triumph to the Turkish bondholders, who, if all tales be true, through a portion of the press and through the agency of a knot of influential financialists operating upon the idiosyncrasies (the honest idiosyncrasies, because no one here suspects the Prime Minister of any personal or financial susceptibilities) and vanity of Lord Beaconsfield, have exercised a much greater influence upon the ministerial policy than ever has been exercised in this country in any foreign question heretofore. Turkish bonds have risen more than 50 per cent. in the last four weeks, and if it be known that England is going to exercise a sort of protectorate over Rumelia and Asia Minor, these bonds may, and probably will, rise still higher. But the triumph of a set of financial speculators, very few of whom are of English origin, is hardly the triumph which a large portion of the people of this country, including the whole of the ministerial party, have so largely discounted already. When we voted six million sterling for warlike purposes: when we consented to allow our reserve men to be called out from their industrial occupations, leaving, as many of them were compelled to do, their wives and children to be supported by the poor-rates and the contributions of the benevolent: when we winked at the straining of the constitution and the arbitrary exercise of the prerogative in the matter of the Indian contingent: and when we opened a new leaf in the history of the British Empire by employing Indian troops in European matters—when we did all this, and a good deal more, at the imminent risk of a bloody war, we thought the country, and not a body of non-English speculators, was to reap the benefit. If, however, the state paper published in the *Globe* be authentic, and if there be nothing behind it which has not yet seen the light, the financial-

ists are the only people in England who have secured any triumph. Russia has got all, or nearly all, she fought for, and England has got nothing but a tremendous and inglorious responsibility.

Rumors of an immediate dissolution of Parliament have been rife during these recent days of discounted splendor. We have been told on the best authority that Lord Beaconsfield would come home in a blaze of glory, with a substantial settlement of the Eastern Question in his pocket: a dukedom and the Garter—or, as some one said, the two vacant Garters, one on each of his triumphal legs—for himself; a general election and an overwhelming majority for his party; and a new lease of power for his administration. There were many reasons, independent of the anticipated diplomatic victory, to suggest the probability of an early dissolution. The Parliament has become old and demoralized. It is in no mood for work. The leadership is weak and the troublesome members strong. There is no discipline in Parliament as a whole, though the party discipline of the Ministerialists is as good as it was in 1874. These conditions inside Parliament are enough to raise the presumption that it will not last long, and outside Parliament there are causes at work which tend in the same direction. The additional taxation necessary to meet the enormous expenditure of the past year has not yet been felt, but it will be felt before many months are over. It is obviously, therefore, the interest of the Government to try their chances with the constituencies before the latter have begun to feel the irksomeness of an additional twopence a pound upon their incomes and fourpence a pound upon their tobacco. In these circumstances a triumphant peace would have proved a wholesome antidote to the poison of discontent produced by increased taxation, and would have been a powerful auxiliary to the ministerialists in their appeal to the country.

It may be doubtful, however, if such a peace as is foreshadowed in the state paper referred to will be regarded by the "Jingo" party in the state as triumphant. It may almost appear ridiculous, considering all the fireworks which have been set off in honor of it during the past four weeks. It must appear a dear purchase at the price we have paid for it, and it probably will be embarrassing both to this and to future administrations. When, therefore, the country comes to count the cost of the machinery necessary to keep Disraelism in full swing, it may be inclined to say of it, as the Yorkshire farmer said of a Yorkshire parson who had led a disgraceful life, and was finally hanged for forgery—"Well, he was a bad 'un, he was, and if the devil don't get he it is no more use of us keeping a devil." To the bulk of the Liberal party the conditions of peace as furnished in the state paper are satisfactory except in two important particulars—the cession, namely, of Bessarabia and the Protectorate. The first they admit to be a question for Austria and Germany rather than for England, but they dislike the ingratitude and brutality which Russia displays in exacting this bit of territory from her ally. The Protectorate fills the Liberal mind with vague doubts and fears: a protectorate of Rumelia and Asia Minor means so very much; it is so big a thing, and it involves such an embarrasment of detail. There are plenty of men in England—retired Indian civilians and others—who could be found at twenty-four hours' notice well qualified to discharge the duties of administrators in the Asian or European provinces of Turkey, and they would discharge these duties with integrity and ability; and it may be that in the interests of civilization no better solution could be found. But the difficulty consists in the military question, and in the jealousy likely to be engendered in the minds of the other powers. Unless we had complete military ascendancy, our influence would be wasted. Every quarrel between Maronites and Druses, or between any Christian and Mussulman sect in a country village, would be a source of disquietude and danger. We should have no peace. But then the question arises, How would the Mediterranean Powers—France, Italy, or Greece—view any proposal which entailed a British military ascendancy? The protectorate may be a grand conception, but it is one that strikes the imagination of a man of the Disraeli temperament rather than the practical intelligence of a hard-headed and perhaps unimaginative Liberal.

THE MILITARY POWER OF THE QUEEN OF GREAT BRITAIN AND EMPRESS OF INDIA.

CAIRO, EGYPT, June 8, 1878.

NEVER has a nation more clearly demonstrated her weakness as a military power for the time being than has the Government of Great Britain under Lord Beaconsfield. During some months past that Government has been boasting before the world that while Great Britain, from economical and personal-liberty views, maintained only a small military

force within her own borders, she yet held in India an immense reserve army, ready and willing, ay, greatly desirous, to operate in Europe in defence of the power and honor of the "mother" country. It might have answered the purposes of the moment to vaunt in the public press this great power. *Perhaps* the nations of Europe might have been led to believe that a real military power in the form of a large and reliable army, though distant, existed at the disposal of the British Government, and that only motives of love of peace and of prudence restrained Great Britain from displaying this great military power before the eyes of Europe. I do not say that wise European Governments *would* have believed this, but that some *might* have believed it. Unfortunately, however, for the reputation of Great Britain as the possessor of practical military power in a great land force, the Earl of Beaconsfield, in his love of stage effect, saw fit to attempt to impress Europe by a mobilization of a portion of this great auxiliary force, and its introduction into Europe. And what has been this effect?

The first detachment of these auxiliaries, amounting to possibly seven thousand armed men, has reached Malta *two months* after the order for embarkation, and at an expense of a little more than three-quarters of a million pounds sterling. Probably there is not a government in Europe of the first, second, or third rate which could not have put into the field from its *reserves*, within two weeks, twice that number of good soldiers, and with the same amount of money have maintained that double force for more than a year. If we are to judge by the time taken in thus sending from India a force of seven thousand armed men, how long a time would be required to convey to the Mediterranean a force of one hundred thousand men, with their horses and material of war? As regards the question of expense, it need not be now discussed, since the prevailing impression on the Continent, and especially in the East, is, that Great Britain has at her disposal inexhaustible supplies of guineas, and can afford to pay even double the amount per man which this expedition of seven thousand men has cost. That is a question to be discussed, not by the soldier but by the political economist and financier. But supposing the money to be forthcoming as may be desired; supposing it were possible for Great Britain to despatch in *one day* from India a force of one hundred thousand men, and that, for that purpose, she could assemble the necessary number of steamships and sailing vessels (to be towed by the steamers) for that force—supposing all this possible, what time would be required for the assembling of one hundred thousand men in the Mediterranean Sea, and what would be the cost?

It must be remembered that the shortest line between Bombay and the Mediterranean Sea is via the Suez Canal, and even in the case which we have supposed, that all the ships required could leave India on the same day, there is still to be considered the capacity of the Suez Canal for passing ships, and especially sailing ships, towed safely and regularly by the steamtugs of the Suez Canal Company. If we take this into account, it will be found that a fleet bearing the army of 100,000 men, with their horses and material, could by no possibility assemble in the Mediterranean Sea ready to proceed to a point of landing in less than sixty days, under the most favorable circumstances of wind and weather. The cost of this rapid transportation alone could not fall under £10,000,000 (ten millions of pounds sterling). Now, any second-rate power in Europe—say Belgium, Switzerland, or Denmark—could mobilize within half that time the same number of troops, and for half the money could maintain them for one year. But any soldier must know that it would be quite impossible to transport an Indian army of 100,000 to the Mediterranean with all the means of the British Imperial Government even in double the time stated; that is, it would require not less than four months to concentrate 100,000 Indian troops in a position suitable for a base of operations to act against any European Power. Were the order for the embarkation given on the 15th of June, the force could not be in place before the 15th of October. How could a campaign be commenced with those troops before the 1st of November, that is to say, in the commencement of the European winter—for Indian troops?

But there is something much more fatal than all that has been stated to the idea that the Indian troops would add strength to the British army to such an extent as has been set forth. The composition of the Indian army itself makes it incapable as against a European army fighting in Europe. The British Indian army is, for the holding in subjection of the millions of Indians, made up of men of three different religions, those of each religion bitterly hating and despising those of each of the other two. This composition of the army is necessary in India in order that the Government may guard against revolt on the part of the men of any one religion. It accomplishes thoroughly this object, and makes

these troops, when well watched by British European troops, useful in holding in subjection their own countrymen. But it necessarily destroys anything like a spirit of comradeship among the soldiers, and takes away all confidence in each class in the support, in time of danger, of the other classes. This was noted during the passage of the 7,000 through the canal of Suez. On one ship would be found three different kitchens for the soldiers of the three different religions, for those of one belief would not eat that which was cooked or touched by a man of another creed. This went so far that, if the *shadow* of a Moslem comrade fell on a dish prepared for a Brahmin, the latter would instantly throw away the food thus contaminated and call for a fresh supply! Leaving out of account the slight, warm-weather physique of these Indians, who would scarcely be capable of fighting on equal terms against the strongly-built, well-developed European soldier, how could a force of such composition be maintained in Europe, and what chances of success would it have in fighting troops of one nationality, one national sentiment, and one religion? As no Indian is permitted to rise to a grade higher than that of a company commander, all the field and staff officers of these troops must be British—of yet another race and yet another religion, as well as of a different language. With all these difficulties to contend with, while a European nation finding itself at war with England should count 100,000 Indians as 100,000 soldiers in estimating the military strength necessary to put forth in a struggle against that country, a prudent British general, in estimating his own force, could hardly count them for 50,000, if as much as that.

The moral question involved, as to the *right* of England to employ such troops against those of civilized Europe, is for others than military men to consider, and the question of the effect which must necessarily be produced on the British army and on the British nation by the employment of such troops against a nation which fights with its own blood against such auxiliaries, should be discussed only between the people of Great Britain. Englishmen should be among the first to remember that a country is always eventually ruled by that portion of its people which is willing and ready to fight for it; and if the special force of the Empress of India is to do the main fighting for the British Government, Great Britain must be content to have the order of title reversed, and to acknowledge frankly that "Empress of India" has become the first title of the sovereign. "Victoria, Empress of India, Queen of Great Britain and Ireland," should be the future title; and, should Her Imperial Majesty still retain the title so proudly borne by her ancestors—"Defender of the Faith"—justice would require that the world should know which of the faiths—Christian, Moslem, Brahmin, or other—is the one intended, and which she is bound to defend.

Correspondence.

THE COUNTESS POTOCKA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to correct the false impression conveyed by an anonymous correspondent in the *Nation* of last week. The materials for my historical sketch of the Countess Potocka were necessarily drawn from German sources, and from Polish writers in French, and of this the editor of *Scribner's Monthly* was duly informed. To establish "a case of plagiarism," a few lines picked here and there from my paper are compared with the text of a German article of half the length. I confess that the lines chosen are unwarrantably literal—a result of my carelessness in handling translated notes. But the fault is made to appear flagrant by a dextrous use of those excerpted lines supplemented by the phrase "etc.," which unjustly conveys the impression that the comparison made is a fair sample of the whole, whereas careful examination shows that nine lines out of four pages of the article are all that can fairly be put in the place of the misleading phrase "etc." That the article should afford *any* ground for such suspicion is to me a matter of regret.

Respectfully,

C. C. BUEL.

13 PARK AVENUE, July 1, 1878.

WESTERN CULTURE AND FARMING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You will perhaps consent to add my observations of the West to the estimate of your correspondent in your last number. I have often noticed the isothermal line of culture he speaks of (though I am not familiar with Texas), and I think he is generally correct. I should draw it,

however, a little farther south, so as to take in Iowa generally and the eastern counties of Nebraska. The great tract north of this line varies very little in its social character on any large scale, though it presents many minor local differences in its clusters of settlers of one or another nationality. The traveller frequently comes across little communities of New-Englanders, with their book and magazine clubs, and an interest in literary matters, though they are the exception, even here. The mass of the people certainly are all through this country "bright, quick, and industrious," and I may add that the farming class is honest and economical. This whole tract is essentially a farming country, very fertile, but requiring steady hard labor to develop its fertility, and the settlers understand this. The difference in the proportion of the corn and wheat raised does not materially affect the social characteristics, and these are such as justly to inspire us with hope. The great mass of foreigners which is filling these fertile plains is decidedly superior to the native-born squatter class which preceded it. It has adopted the best of our New England characteristics and improves rapidly with each generation. On the other hand, even in the most favored spots, the children of the best class of New England settlers retrograde very perceptibly from their fathers' standpoint, becoming ruder and rougher and less attentive to either the niceties or the intellectualities of life. Yet, as your correspondent remarks, they are still superior to the lazier, amusement-seeking population farther south.

You are mistaken in supposing that there is land to be had for the taking in this region that is worth taking, but prices are generally so low beyond the Mississippi that large farming profits are the rule. It is often said in the East that Western farmers cannot afford to pay ten per cent. interest on their farms; but Western men know better. Rented farms usually pay more than that, while leaving a fair share to the tenant, and this seems conclusive evidence. The Eastern theorists forget that ten per cent. on twelve dollars an acre is a good deal easier to meet than five per cent. on a hundred dollars an acre. Then, farmers do not generally live as expensively as in the East. They have no carpets on their floors or room papers on their walls, which are often not only unpainted but unplastered. They do not buy pianos or books, or even newspapers. The only thing they are extravagant in is machinery sold on credit. Unfortunately the town population is generally inferior to them in honesty, and the legal profession is especially low; but these evils are slowly being cured.

The principal mistake that settlers are making just now is in going too far West. We have had three extraordinarily wet seasons, during which farming has been very profitable in the western parts of Kansas and Nebraska, where it has not succeeded before. But there is no sufficient reason to think that there has been any permanent climatic change on any large scale; and if not, it must be expected that farming will again be comparatively poor after you get one hundred miles west of the Missouri. The soil shows that vegetation never was as luxurious as further East; it is thinner and more rapidly impoverished by the exhaustive Western method of cultivation. Official records show that the average rain-fall diminishes suddenly from one-fourth to one-third. In the first five years of the 1870 decade three years were of heavy loss from drought. Every Western man remembers how the farmers were leaving in 1874 the land they are now pouring into in such numbers. Very probably the general setting out of trees and breaking of the soil temper the season somewhat and equalize the part of the rain-fall detained by the soil; but, after every reasonable allowance is made for this, no immense change is to be expected, and the fact remains that a great many settlers have gone in the last year to lands which, in average seasons, do not pay to farm, and that the first dry year or two will send them back in swarms, for the new farmer is almost always heavily laden with debt and cannot stand two successive years of drought. The Western land-grant railroads have, no doubt, acted very shrewdly for themselves in pushing the sales of their most western lands as strenuously as they have done in the last year; but it may probably be unfortunate for the farmers that their memory is not a little longer.

H. D.

JULY 1.

A DISAPPOINTING BOOK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: When a scientific man who lives by his profession buys a new book in his special department, at a high price, he has reason to demand an equivalent for his money. If he finds that he has been deceived by the title, and has bought a new reprint of an old work, he is apt to be doubly vexed on finding that he has paid money for a manual everything

contained in which he has in a half-dozen other books. I am led to make these remarks from the fact that I was recently misled by a title, and bought an old book for a new one. In buying the new edition of "Industrial Chemistry, a manual, etc.," edited throughout and supplemented with chapters on the metals, etc., I had reason to think from the advertisements that I was buying a hand-book brought down to the times. I find I have been—cheated. I do not think this a too harsh expression. I venture to say that this work contains nothing not found in Gmelin, or Watts's Dictionary, or Wurtz's Dictionary, or the new "Handwörterbuch," while each and every one of these books surpass this new (?) manual in fulness and freshness of material.

In the index of this professedly modern work the word Aniline does not occur. Under Nickel a foolishly absurd process of nickel-plating is given, and no hint or allusion is made to the Adams process, upon which the whole modern art is grounded. Under Zinc the old stupid mistake about the color of the oxide under heat is perpetuated, though a reference to a 40-year-old Berzelius would have corrected the error. No notice is taken of the recent prominence attained by Vanadium and its salts in manufactures, and under Cobalt (I open the book at random and this is what first strikes my eye) we have the amazing statement, "Cobalt is never used in the arts; its metallurgy is confined to laboratory processes." Upon p. 275 is a drawing of an apparatus for the analysis of carbonate of sodium, and at the end of the description is the remark, wholly needless and untrue, "Scheibler's apparatus for determining the amount of carbonic acid is of like construction." Benzol, anthracen, and naphthalin are merely glanced at; fulminates of mercury and silver seem to be omitted; the German word *Surrogate* is translated by the English word surrogate; there are gross misprints and mistranslations, and the book, with some exceptions, appears to be a piece of job-work very badly done.

Yours, etc.,

J. M. MERRICK.

BOSTON, July 1, 1878.

FLORIDA ELECTION FRAUDS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your summary of the evidence taken by the Congressional Sub-Committee, lately in session at Jacksonville, in relation to the electoral fraud perpetrated at Precinct No. 13, Leon County, is as follows:

"Testimony was also given of the ballot-box stuffing in Leon County, Florida, at Precinct No. 13, by Inspector Bowes, who holds a position in Washington, D. C. He put in 73 or 74 'jolly jokers,' and made his count to correspond, and boasted that he had saved the State for Hayes."

Now, the audacity which enables "Thomas W. Lion, 222 Second Street, Washington, D. C.," in the *Nation* of the 20th inst., to represent these "jolly jokers" as "legitimate ballots for the Presidential election of 1876, cast by legal voters, and proved to be legitimate at the counting of the ballots," is nearly overpowering.

I send one of the "jokers," an exact presentation of which, if you choose, you can give to your readers. It is a diminutive scrap of paper on which are found the names of four candidates for Presidential electors, one for governor, one for lieutenant-governor, one for Congress, First Congressional District, and four for the Assembly, Leon County, eleven names in all, with the offices to be filled all printed in full, on the space of a little more than one square inch.

The existence of these slips of paper was discovered by the Democrats the evening before the election. Their purpose was not doubtful, viz.: to be folded in tickets of the ordinary size, thus enabling the Republican voter to duplicate his vote. Democratic runners were at once despatched throughout the county denouncing the contemplated fraud. No serious attempt was therefore made, I believe, to carry out the scheme at any of the numerous voting places except No. 13 (Richardson's school-house), where the inspectors being Bowes and two negroes, all Republicans, Bowes was able to work into the ballot-box 73 or 74 of the "jokers."

The proof of the fraud was established by overwhelming evidence before the Congressional Sub-Committee which met at this place a short time after the election, at the head of which (the sub-committee) was Mr. Thompson, of Mass., Gen. Butler's successful competitor. Bowes promptly disappeared, and when next heard of is in office at Washington—as why should he not be, having "saved the State for Hayes"? The Circuit Court for this (Leon) County indicted him for the frauds, and the sheriff has now in his hands a capias for his arrest.

When the ballots were counted, 73 or 74 of the "little jokers" came out of the box. Not one was seen to go in, as proved by Amos Rouss, a white man of excellent character who stood (or sat) by, and was closely watching all day, and by S. R. Booth (colored Republican), inspector,

who lately at Jacksonville testified that "he saw none of the 74 'little-joker' tickets about the place or voted on that day, and first knew of them by seeing them in the ballot-box on counting the votes with Bowes and Dent, the other inspectors."

The testimony of Mr. Charles H. Edwards, County Clerk at the time, now residing in Jacksonville, was this :

"C. H. Edwards testified: Was County Clerk in Leon County before, during, and after the canvass; was told before election that 'jolly jokers' had been prepared, but understood they were not to be used; think Purman had them in his possession before election; had conversation with Joseph Bowes, now holding a position in Washington, who was one of the inspectors at Precinct No. 13. Bowes told me afterwards that he got in or put in 73 or 74 of the jokers; remonstrated with him about it when the Congressional Committee was there, and told him his bungling manner of doing the whole thing had got the party into trouble; he said he didn't care; that those 73 votes had given Hayes a majority in Florida. I understood he put the tickets in himself. The canvass made by the County Board included all the votes, as shown by the returns of each precinct. Bowes said the poll-list had been made to correspond with the number of 'jokers' put in. My opinion, when told before election about the 'jokers,' was that they were to be used fraudulently, and for that reason I and other Republicans remonstrated against their use. Purman told me that he knew of an election that had been carried by the use of such votes, and showed me one or two of those it was proposed to use."

(Purman's name you will see on the "little joker." He was Republican candidate for Congress.)

Judge McLin swore as follows :

"Witness was shown by Bowes one of the 'little-joker' tickets prior to the election, and was informed by Bowes that the use intended to be made of them was to fold one in each ticket of the ordinary size, so that the voter would vote two instead of one vote at a time. Witness remonstrated against this, and thought at the time the plan had been abandoned."

If Bowes desires to give his evidence, by all means let him be present at the term of our Circuit Court, and an opportunity will be given him under the humane provisions of the Florida statute which permits criminals to testify in their own behalf. Will he come? But perhaps he cannot be spared from his official duties at Washington.

Your obedient servant,

R. B. HILTON.

TALLAHASSEE, JUNE 26, 1878.

[We annex a fac-simile of the diminutive ballot which accompanies Mr. Hilton's letter, and which *prima facie* certainly suggests a fraudulent intent.—ED. NATION.]

Presidential Electors.—Fredrick C. Humphries, Charles H. Pearce, William H. Holden, Thomas W. Long.

For Governor.—Marcellus L. Stearns.

For Lieutenant Governor.—David Montgomery.

For Congress, First District.—William J. Purman.

For the Assembly, Leon County.—William F. Thompson, William H. Ford, Edmund C. Weeks, Denard Quarterman.

Notes.

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS will issue by the middle of this month a novel, 'The Cossacks,' by Count Leo Tolstoy. This work, which Turgeneff has pronounced on the whole the best Russian work ever written, has been translated at Turgeneff's instance by Mr. Eugene Schuyler. For some particulars about Count Tolstoy one may consult the article "Russian Contemporary Thought" in the *Contemporary Review* for June. —Another translation which deserves to be welcomed is that of Paul Lacombe's 'Short History of the French People,' in the press of H. A. Young & Co., Boston. —A work which ought to be interesting, 'Amy and Marian's Voyage Around the World,' is announced by D. Lothrop & Co., Boston. These young ladies are the daughters of the Rev. Nehemiah Adams, who accompanied them. The illustrations will be from photographs, and in this respect the book should therefore compare favorably with Mrs. Brassey's. —Mr. John Bartlett has got upon the track of that familiar quotation, "Thou' lost to sight, to mem'ry dear." It was composed in the present century and probably during the past fifty years by George Linley, as part of a song which he also set to music (about 1848) for the vocalist, Augustus Braham. Linley was an Englishman, born in 1798, who died so recently (1865) that it is a wonder he did not step forward and claim the authorship. The song had six stanzas, the first beginning with the line in question; the third and sixth ending with "To mem'ry thou art dear" repeated as a refrain. —The American Philological Association will hold its tenth annual session at Saratoga, beginning on Tuesday, July 9. President Gildersleeve's address will be delivered on

Wednesday. The place of meeting will be the Opera House connected with the Grand Union Hotel. —Vol. ii., Nos. 45-46, a double number, of *Psyche* contains the first annual address of the President of the Cambridge Entomological Club, Mr. Samuel H. Scudder. It possesses chief interest for specialists, but on the subject of ants the general reader will be greatly edified. —The sixth annual report of the Directors of the Chicago Public Library shows an unfortunate difference between themselves and the City Council in regard to the support due the institution for its proper working. This difference, expressed in figures, is \$21,025. The actual expenses of the library for the year ending May 31 were \$33,787; the Council appropriates but \$23,000. —Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, has published a striking photographic likeness, imperial size, of the late Dr. Charles Hodge, Professor of Didactic and Exegetical Theology at Princeton. Dr. Hodge's fatal illness was brought on by his attendance at the funeral of his contemporary, the late Prof. Henry. The portraits of these two eminent men afford excellent types of the scientific and the clerical physiognomy; Mr. Galton's composite portraiture could hardly produce better. Mr. Gutekunst, by the way, has just had the cross of the Knights of the Austrian Order of Franz-Joseph conferred upon him by the Emperor of Austria, in recognition of his artistic merit. —It appears that we were in error in ascribing the article in *Lippincott's* for July called "A Levantine Picnic" to Captain Strong of the U. S. S. *Canandaigua*. —Cassell, Petter & Galpin have furnished a liberal example as employers by announcing their intention to set aside yearly a fixed proportion of their profits as a fund for payments on account of the death or incapacity from age, illness, or accident of employees who have served seven years or more. The sum set aside for this year is £600. —In *Hermes* appears a valuable article by Theodor Mommsen on the family of Germanicus. —In the *Rheinisches Museum* we may note an article by W. Foerster on the difficult subject of the determination of the quantity of Latin vowels in syllables long by position, which, in addition to the means already employed for that purpose (scattered notices of Roman grammarians, the "i longa" and the apices—and, we may add, the vowel-gemination—of the inscriptions and Greek transliterations of Latin words), seeks to recommend a criterion hitherto little regarded—viz., evidence drawn from the vocalism of the Romanic languages.

—The history of a great building like that of a great man has its lessons, and of all our recent architecture what more worthy to be commemorated than the Harvard Memorial Hall? A hundred years hence something more than a thin pamphlet will be needed to review its associations. How it came to be thought of, how the money was raised, and how the building grew into a harmonious whole, answering a four or five-fold purpose, is told in forty pages of the 'Final Reports of the Building Committee and of the Treasurer of the Harvard Memorial Fund,' June 26, 1878 (Cambridge: Press of John Wilson & Son). The original idea of a memorial is herein attributed to the late ex-President James Walker; to the late Mr. Charles G. Loring were due the suggestion that the memorial should take the form of a building, and the happy thought of combining dining-hall and theatre for the everyday needs and uses of the college. The total cost of the building was \$387,039.36, of which the alumni and friends contributed somewhat more than half; the college \$15,000; the Sanders bequest nearly \$65,000, and Mr. Henry Lee (a model treasurer) upwards of \$18,000. So well was the fund managed that the \$73,705 of interest and profit represented an average of nine per cent. The alumni's list of contributors begins with the late Horace Binney (class of 1797) and ends with the class of 1870. Nevertheless, eighteen classes that might have been represented took no part in the subscription, and only one in five of the living alumni responded to the committee's appeals; the larger number of the non-contributors, as the treasurer says pointedly, "voluntarily omitted to contribute to the erection of a building intended to commemorate the self-sacrifice of their brethren." However, the building is there, triumphant over timidity, stinginess, or party feeling; a lasting monument of courage, patience, wisdom, and gratitude as well as of heroism, with an indispensable educational function whose value time will steadily increase.

—A remarkable instance of the vitality of a clever lie is to be seen in the repeated references to the pretended will of Peter the Great. A writer in the July *Atlantic* has even taken the trouble to reprint the will *in extenso*, as being "little known" and of "well-attested" "authenticity." It is to be presumed that this writer had never seen a little brochure published in 1872 by E. Dentu at Paris, and attributed to the late M. Thiers, entitled "Les Auteurs du Testament de Pierre le Grand: page d'Histoire," or the researches on this subject of Professor Berkholtz of

Riga, printed not long ago in, we believe, the *Russische Revue*. These authors have plainly shown that the pretended will was, in all probability, originally forged by order of Napoleon just previous to the campaign against Moscow, with the purpose of frightening Europe about Russian designs. It first appeared in a book published at Paris in 1812 by Lesur, of the French Foreign Office, entitled "Des progrès de la puissance russe depuis son origine jusqu'au commencement du XIXe siècle," many copies of which were taken with the army by the Duke de Bassano. In 1836, when the Eastern question came up for a while, the will reappeared in a more precise and diplomatic form in "Les Mémoires du Chevalier d'Éon" by Gaillardet, who is chiefly known as having aided Dumas in writing the drama of "La Tour de Nesle." The Chevalier d'Éon was declared to have discovered its existence and to have copied it. Léonard Chodzko, a Polish writer, in "La Pologne illustrée" in 1839, adds details as to the time the will was written by Peter. Apart from the intrinsic impossibility of the ideas and the language of the pretended will being used in a Russian state paper of the time of Peter the Great (note the term "schismatic Greeks" in Art. xii., and "our swarms of Oriental hordes and greedy nomads" in Art. xiv., which, by the way, does not appear in the translation given in the *Atlantic*), the archives of Russia down to the end of the last century, including the most secret papers, and all documents relating to Peter the Great, are open to historical students, foreign as well as Russian, and no such document has ever been discovered there, nor has any one ever succeeded in finding in the French archives the copy alleged to be brought by the Chevalier d'Éon to the Abbé de Bernis in 1757. In the *Academy* of June 1 there is an article on this subject based on an article of Prof. Harry Bresslau in the *Deutsche Revue* for April, 1878, giving additional evidence of the forgery.

—As usual, *Scribner's* for July challenges attention by reason of its wood-cuts, but the articles are of less than the usual interest and of slight merit judged merely as literary productions. We except the serial tales—Mr. Eggleston's "Roxy," now in its 44th chapter, and Miss Trafton's "His Inheritance," concluded in this number at the 38th; and we certainly mean no disrespect to Dr. Brewer's third authoritative paper on bird-architecture, with its copious illustrations. The designs of "A Few Antiques," representing sundry articles exhibited in last summer's Loan Collection of the Society of Decorative Art, are a valuable memorandum as far as they go, and hints of other treasures are given in the accompanying letter-press. There is some post-mortem glorification of Chief Matsell in the account of the "Police of New York." A plain summary of the relations of Italy to the popes of the present century, by Mr. Luigi Monti, can be profitably read even by those who do not labor under the errors which he seeks to combat, viz.: in regard to the confiscation of monastic corporate property, and the general status of the "prisoner of the Vatican" under the Law of the Guarantees. Mr. Burroughs, in his fantastic discourse on the weather, fails signally to answer his own question, "Is it going to rain?" Quotations about probable showers of muriatic, nitric, and sulphuric acid on Saturn and Jupiter (as to the possible coexistence of which the chemist might have something to say), and a few old saws, make us none the wiser about getting in our hay or leaving our umbrellas at home.

—In the 'Prairie,' the last of the five Leatherstocking Tales of Cooper, the old woodsman dies, drawing himself up stiffly like the soldier that he was, answering "Here!" and falling back dead. In the 'Newcomes' the old colonel goes back as a poor brother, a pensioner, to die in the Grey Friars where he had studied as a lad. And there at last the end comes, described in words that easily cling to the memory:

"And just as the last bell struck, a peculiar sweet smile shone over his face, and he lifted up his head a little and quickly said, 'Adsum!' and fell back. It was the word we used at school when names were called: and, lo, he whose heart was as that of a little child had answered to his name and stood in the presence of The Master."

This coincidence was long ago pointed out, but though the 'Prairie' was published years before the 'Newcomes,' and was doubtless familiar to Thackeray, with this author a charge of plagiarism must be dismissed as soon as raised; nor, to our thinking, need it be raised in the latest instance of the employment of the same idea. In the June number of *Appleton's Journal* is published the final instalment of 'By Celia's Arbor,' a novel, by James Rice and Walter Besant. In its last chapter a sea-captain dies:

"And then a strange thing happened. His voice, which had been sinking to a faint murmur, suddenly grew full again and strong. He lifted his figure and sat upright. His eyes flashed with a sudden light as

he raised his voice and looked upward. He lifted his right hand to the peak of his cap—the old familiar salute of a sailor—as he reported himself.

"Come aboard, sir!"

"Then his hand dropped and his head fell forward. The captain was dead."

—The death of Sir Thomas Duffus Hardy, the Deputy Keeper of Her Majesty's Public Record Office, in London, on the 15th ult., is a loss to the country and to men of learning all over the world. A truer, more indefatigable, and more accurate antiquarian never lived. He entered the British civil service in his fifteenth year, as a junior clerk in the branch Record Office "in the Wakefield tower" of the Tower of London. He died, in his seventy-fourth year, the virtual keeper of the whole of the public records of the realm, the highest position to which he could attain in the public department having custody of the national archives and state papers. He was really without a rival in his recondite knowledge of all the sources of the history of the English nation, and, like all real scholars, he was as modest and retiring in putting forward his strength as if he were but a beginner in his almost limitless field of labor. To him alone belongs the credit of throwing open the use of the national records to the public without fees of any kind, and the honor of suggesting and superintending the series of 'Chronicles and Memorials of English History,' which, for the most part, are worthy of the country whose great past they enshrine and illumine. Sir Thomas D. Hardy was born in Port Royal, January, 1804. He was twice married, and leaves behind him two daughters, one by each marriage.

—In the settlement of the Eastern Question all civilized nations must approve whatever extension of territory or influence falls to Greece. Her claims on European consideration as one of the subject nationalities of Turkey are second only to those of the Slavs, and of course in some parts of Turkey they are not subordinate, but precedent. In spite of oppression the Greeks of the empire have kept alive the spirit of learning by means of schools and literary and scientific institutions, and their efforts have been "such as would deserve the highest praise even if they were living in a free country with all the rights of citizens." We quote from an interesting communication from Mr. Schuyler, writing from Constantinople, in the *Athenæum* for May 18. "Throughout all the smaller towns of Thrace, Macedonia, Thessaly, Asia Minor, and the islands," he continues, "there is a complete system of Greek schools, under the supervision of the Greek bishops, nearly all of which were founded by private subscriptions or by some syllogos or society. In all the larger towns, such as Constantinople, Adrianople, Smyrna, and even Philippopolis, there are high-schools of different grades, almost colleges," whose instruction is excellent. Greeks from all parts of the world have been the founders of these schools by legacies or gifts. The chief of the literary societies is the syllogos of Constantinople, which holds frequent meetings and provides lecture-courses, and has a fair library (replacing a more valuable one lost by fire), and a museum, principally of inscriptions on stone from the neighborhood of Constantinople. The Thracian syllogos and Epirote syllogos are the guardians of education in their respective provinces. Most active and successful of all is the Society of the Evangelical School at Smyrna. The school was founded in 1743 by a Greek teacher and now numbers 1,500 pupils. A few years ago some of the young Smyrniotes undertook to improve the library and museum connected with it, and the former now contains upwards of 15,000 volumes, very rich in works pertaining to Asia Minor, and freely accessible to everybody. Inscriptions, statuettes, bas-reliefs, a fine collection of coins, beautiful and rare MSS., etc., make the museum an important adjunct to the library for the study of the history and antiquities of the East, which, indeed, says Mr. Schuyler, can nowhere else be pursued to advantage in Turkey.

—The *Nederlandsche Spectator*, in translating the collection of blunders which we printed lately, mentions that Gervinus ascribes a work of Prof. David of Leuven to D. Leuven; and the translator adds another to the list by rendering one of our clauses thus: "Mr. Andover is an authority in ecclesiastical matters." Indeed the blunder crop has been large lately. *Polybiblion* refers to the "Critical dictionary of Sir Austin Allibone"; the *Bookworm* for May, in its Burns bibliography, makes one German edition to be published at Uebertragen, and calls the publishers of two others J. G. Gotta Schen. Lagrange, in his recent "History of English Humor," quotes from the American wit, O. W. Holms. The *American Bookseller* classifies "An exposition of betting and book-making [i.e., making up betting-books]" under Literary Criticism. In the two follow-

ing instances let the reader see if his conjectural criticism can restore the original text. From a French catalogue :

Ivan et Noé, par Walther Coq.

Asked for at a Boston library :

Liton's Rinzy.

GARDINER'S PERSONAL GOVERNMENT OF CHARLES I.*

"ENGLAND may well be proud," writes Mr. Gardiner, "of possessing in Wentworth a nobler statesman than Richelieu, of the type to which the great cardinal belonged." Is this estimate of Strafford (to call Wentworth by the name under which he is known to history) borne out by Mr. Gardiner's own narrative? The cardinal stands pre-eminent among statesmen by his influence over others, by his sagacious and enlightened adaptation of means to ends, by his keen insight into the requirements of the age, and by the determination with which he followed a policy which, whether bad or good, has been in one form or another pursued by every king or minister who has permanently influenced the destiny of France. In each of the points in which the cardinal was strong Strafford will, even on Mr. Gardiner's view of the facts, be found to have been weak.

Strafford towered by a head and shoulders above all the other politicians who supported the personal policy of Charles I. His strength of will, his energy, his vigor as an administrator, are confessed even by his foes. But it is striking to observe how little influence he seems to have exerted on a master who was a mere puppet in the hands of Buckingham. Strafford's administration in Ireland was thwarted by Charles's desire to job. Strafford, again, was opposed to the bootless intrigues which Charles was pleased to consider a foreign policy, yet he could not keep the king from pursuing schemes abroad fatal to the success of his policy at home. Strafford thought it of consequence that he should obtain a public recognition of the monarch's esteem, yet the coveted title was only obtained with difficulty. If Strafford disapproved of the means by which Laud attempted to strengthen the Church, his incapacity to put a check upon the clerical fussiness of a colleague whose intellect he must have despised, affords a curious example of the failure on the part of a strong man to influence men inferior to himself. If, on the other hand, it be said that Strafford approved as a statesman of Laud's ecclesiastical policy we have at once the measure of his incapacity. Assume, as Mr. Gardiner does, that Strafford's aim was to found an enlightened and benevolent despotism; of all the means by which this object could be obtained the most hopeless was to drill the English people after the manner which naturally approved itself to an archbishop who carried to Lambeth all the love of petty discipline which well became the president of St. John's. Moreover, the errors of Laud are intellectually more pardonable than those of his lay colleague. A churchman who *bona fide* thought Presbyterianism a sin might sacrifice worldly advantages in order to combat spiritual evil; but a statesman cannot urge in mitigation of his blunders the pleas which may be advanced for the errors of a bigot. The cardinal who was willing to give toleration to Protestants in France and active support to Protestants in Germany, would have laughed at the fatuity of politicians who lost the chance of strengthening the royal power because they must needs move the communion-table from the middle to the end of the church.

But Strafford (it may be urged) was compelled to support Laud in schemes which a layman's sagacity disapproved. Let, then, his powers as a statesman be judged by his acts within his own special province. If in any place he appears to advantage it is in Ireland. Firmness, strength of will, and energy he undoubtedly possessed, and the government of Ireland has been so bad that the rule of an energetic despot was for centuries at least a considerable improvement on governments which had all the evils without the strength of despotism. Yet even here the statesman who is compared to Richelieu shows but slight traces of statesmanship. To introduce order of some kind was, on Strafford's own view, his primary duty. He began his task by an act of which the perfidy is far less remarkable than the rashness. He unsettled titles to land which, but for a formal error on the part of a government clerk, would have been as good in law as the claim by which he held his own estates. To do this he broke the plighted faith of the crown; and at a time when his obvious policy was to strengthen royal power in Ireland in order to overpower popular opposition in England, he estranged from the king land-owners whom he might easily have led to feel that the strength of the throne was the security for their own possessions.

* 'The Personal Government of Charles I., 1628-1657. By S. R. Gardiner.' London: Longmans & Green.

If there be one test of statesmanlike skill it is the power of subordinating private animosity to considerations of policy. If Strafford be tried by this criterion it is hardly possible to give him credit for the powers he undoubtedly possessed. His whole conduct to Mountnorris is the conduct of a man swayed by personal hatred. A statesman might have found it worth while to get rid of an opponent by a judicial murder, but no man who could lay claim to a statesmanlike character ought to have thought it advisable to pass on an opponent an unjust sentence of death which was not to be executed, in order to compel a rival to surrender office. It is, however, possible that a man of profound insight into the wants of his age may yet be unable to control his own passions, but there is nothing on earth to show that Strafford was one of those men who, as the expression goes, understood his time. The total failure of his policy is not of itself an absolute proof of his incapacity. Cromwell's lifelong efforts to make the ideas of Puritanism supreme ended in failure, but the Protector's bitterest foes do not deny that he stands, as regards statesmanship, on a level with the greatest monarchs who have governed England. The bigotry of Louis XIV. ruined half the results of Richelieu's policy, yet no one doubts the cardinal's claim to fame. What condemns a political leader is not mere failure but the obvious want of power to perceive what are really the great forces of his age and country. The course of history has proved that in the central government and in the people of France, as opposed to the nobility, lay the strength of the country; and Richelieu made the strength of the government and the depression of the nobility the centre of his policy. The course of events has also shown that in religious toleration lay the solution of the difficulties which harassed the seventeenth century; and the cardinal, if he cared little for moral or intellectual freedom, had the sense to perceive that the prosperity of France depended on extending something like toleration to French Protestants. The course of history has also shown that the English nobility and the English middle class have in the long run more than outweighed the power of the crown; and Cromwell, if from his position he could not build his policy on the support of the nobles, tried, though in vain, to found a commonwealth strong in the support of the middle class. He saw with far more clearness than even Richelieu that religious toleration was what the age required, and granted to all except Roman Catholics a religious freedom almost unknown in Europe.

In what respect can Strafford compare for insight with men like these? His policy rested on the support of a king whom no one could trust, and of an archbishop who thought he could bully the English people as he might bully the undergraduates of his college. Nor were Strafford's political ideas really suited to his age. Every page of Mr. Gardiner's history proves that Charles might have made himself a despot if he could have identified himself with the sentiments of his people; but neither Strafford nor Charles seems to have recognized the elementary truth that no nation of any spirit ever gave up its freedom unless it obtained some benefit in return. Strafford, it may be supposed, borrowed his ideas of government from the traditions of the Tudors, but he seems to have forgotten that if Henry VIII. was a despot he represented all the feelings and prejudices of his subjects. Strafford, no less than Charles, seems to have fancied that England might be ruled by a monarch who, when he had usurped all the powers of the state, used them to oppose the most cherished wishes of Englishmen. That Strafford was a man of iron will and reckless boldness no one will deny, but to compare him with Richelieu, Cromwell, or even Walpole, is like the attempt to put a daring swordsman on a level with Napoleon. If the question be asked how it happened that Strafford, if not a man of real genius, impressed his opponents with dread no less than with hatred, the answer lies in the circumstances of his time. The most important conclusion which Mr. Gardiner's work enforces is that but for Charles's incredible folly the nation was hardly prepared to resist his despotism. There was, no doubt, much discontent, but there was no violent outbreak. The country was prosperous, the powers of the crown were ill defined, the judges supported the prerogative, and resistance to the king was almost identified with resistance to the law. To secure his power Charles needed but an army, and this need Strafford strove hard to supply. That a man of Charles's calibre could under any circumstances have crushed the liberties of England it is hard to believe, but men who saw the prerogative extended day by day might well dread as well as hate the one man of talent who was attempting with apparent success to provide the king with a permanent army.

It is probable, also, that men influenced by well-founded hatred somewhat overrated Strafford's power to do evil. Mr. Gardiner, who occa-

sionally appears to know what passed in Strafford's "own mind," and who seems to assume that Strafford's own statement of his motives may be treated as gospel, hardly enters into the strength of the detestation felt towards him by men who saw in Strafford a renegade from the cause of freedom, plotting against the liberties of his country. Nor can we, after reading Mr. Gardiner's candid statement of facts, come to the conclusion that Strafford suffered injustice at the hands of his contemporaries. When he threw in his lot with the cause of the king there seemed every chance that for a generation, at least, there would be no career for any politician who withstood the pretensions of the crown. Strafford saw the road to power, and pursued it. That he never cared much for what in modern days would be termed liberalism we can well believe; that his ambition was not a sordid ambition may also be admitted; but that the patriots whom he opposed should look upon him with hatred seems, to us at least, as natural as that the impartiality of Mr. Gardiner should try to devise defences for Strafford which Strafford would perhaps hardly understand, and might probably repudiate. In any case, careful students should beware lest the overestimate of Strafford's ability, fostered strangely enough alike by contemporary hatred and by the overcautious appreciation of a modern historian, should lead them to the conclusion that a bold politician, deficient both in resource and foresight, belonged to the same class as did the man who built up the centralized despotism of France.

OTIS'S INDIAN QUESTION.*

THE main divisions of this treatise are upon Colonial Indian policy, that of the United States Government, the treaty system, and the reported corruption in the Indian Bureau; and these topics are discussed, with evidence of careful research, in 175 pages—about two-thirds of the volume. The author's conclusion is that there would be legality as well as expediency in the utter abandonment not only of treaties but of tribal contracts, and in the subjection of the whole race to such direct and enforced provisions of law as may be for its benefit in common with the whole body of our citizens. In this consideration the objects of immediate peace, temporary settlement of difficulties, and local advantages, often hitherto exclusively aimed at, properly yield to that of the incorporation into our community of all Indians who can be elevated into a state of civilization. The problem is well stated to be—How shall the Indian be converted into a law-abiding, self-supporting member of society? and not, How shall tribal structures be preserved or the native races built up?

It must be admitted that our past system, whether true or false in mere theory, grew necessarily from the relations of the two races on the coast in the Colonial period. Temporary safety to the colonists was the paramount need when they were weak and the natives by comparison strong. The latter readily compelled recognition of what were assumed to be their political organizations, and indeed these, however rude, contrasted not unfavorably with those of the separated and formless bands of immigrant adventurers. The ignorance and humility which gave their royal titles to "King" Powhatan and "King" Philip among Algonkins who were not only utterly ignorant of sovereignty, but seldom tolerated even a limited and temporary rule beyond the headship of a few individuals connected in consanguineous relationship, show the false views held by the early settlers which colored all subsequent action. The aborigines had also the great advantage of holding for a century the balance of power between the contending forces of England and France, both of which were ever ready to forgive past injuries and to enter into leagues with any portion of the natives, whose demands were always satisfied if practicable, or, if not, met with promises, and whose vanity was inexpensively gratified by ceremonious address as free and independent nations. After the Treaty of Paris, in 1763, England formally recognized tribal relations and native organizations, thereby settling the system upon our Confederation; and the policy formulated in the Ordinance of 1787 has guided the course of our Government in all its Indian treaties made since that time. The Indian nations have been fully recognized as distinct and independent political communities, lawfully possessing the soil by right of immemorial occupancy, and only such restrictions have been imposed upon them as necessity compelled, chief of which were that they could not convey the fee of the land except to the United States, nor hold foreign intercourse. In other respects they were allowed to conduct themselves as they pleased under their own laws and customs. The consideration given by us in our three

hundred and sixty treaties with them, besides some money and articles of more apparent than real value, were the protection of the United States and its promise to maintain the native party to the treaty in the quiet possession of certain tracts of land, from which all whites were to be excluded except a small number licensed for trading purposes. The Indians on their side engaged to refrain from hostilities against the Government, to give up any of their numbers who should rob or murder any citizens, and surrendered large bodies of territory.

Col. Otis does not confine himself to the assertion, for which there exist arguments even stronger than any he has adduced, that the several bodies of natives never possessed such a status as entitled them to be a party to treaties in their true international sense, nor to denouncing the obviously fictitious character of many of the transactions wherein the representatives of our Government could always find or create some so-called chiefs to affix their marks to any instrument for their personal and immediate advantage. He not only boldly declares that the theories of our forefathers upon the law of nature, though correct in the abstract, were not applicable to the tribes, but decides that if they ever were so, there can be, under wholly changed circumstances and after many successive relinquishments of liberties before asserted, no collective rights left for the operation either of treaty or of tribal compact. He presents a statement of inconsistencies and absurdities connected with these pseudo-diplomatic conventions which is more clear than has ever before been arranged. Without dwelling upon some frequent covenants of the Indians themselves for immediate conversion, temperance and virtue, which were ridiculously impossible of observance, we must admit that there have been few of these state documents which a sharp lawyer retained by the tribe could not invalidate before an impartial tribunal. Amendments have often been made by the Senate vitally differing from the actual compact and never re-submitted for concurrence. In some cases it was stipulated that after the treaty the President, with the consent of Congress, should have power to modify that and all former or subsequent treaties, thus throwing the whole subject-matter into the legislative branch. The Executive and Senate, having obtained jurisdiction under the fiction about independent sovereignties, exceeded their province by bestowing the citizenship, not only of the United States but of particular States, upon the members proposed to be severed from the very same organizations; bartered away the public domain by conveying lands in permanency to individuals, sometimes exempted from taxation in the State where they were situated; regulated trade and intercourse, and negotiated in detail upon all possible inter-relations. The national legislature, on the other hand, performed all of the above-mentioned acts without regard to the treaty-making power, and sometimes, in reference to lands, before any treaty had extinguished the conceded Indian right of possession. Several treaties in effect set aside United States statutes, and finally a statute, in 1871, prohibited the further exercise of the constitutional power of treaty. Apart from the illegality of some and the unconstitutionality of others of these proceedings, the tribes in general bargained away every vestige of freedom they possessed, and became, in fact, dependent on the Government for all effective management, as well as for the necessities of life. If they ever had sovereignty they sold it, and, as even the semblance of nationality had expired, the promised self-government became a mockery, and the members of the defunct organization passed under the United States laws as individuals. Granting that there once were real international compacts, their continued validity as binding, unexecuted agreements is questioned.

The reader's sympathy must perforce attend this course of argument against an anomalous system which propped up an antagonistic tribal authority, hampered the force of some beneficent laws, and delayed, by the interposition of unnatural, the operation of natural, influences tending toward civilization. The artificial relation attacked has, doubtless, been equally costly to the United States and unfortunate to its wards. Still, admitting all weight to legal perplexities and practical inconvenience, there is involved a point of absolute national honor, rather grudgingly allowed by the author. It was not the Indian but the Government, as successor to Great Britain, that invented the treaty machinery and engrossed the contradictory or unconstitutional covenants, and if the false theory has induced consecutive deceits, they are not abolished by a new comprehensive breach of integrity. No judicial allowance will be given us to plead our own wrong in invalidation of our own seal; and to repudiate hundreds of the highest governmental acts, covering the entire century of our responsibility, rather suggests the Alexandrine mode of resolving a knotty point. If the view under consideration as to the settlement of our Indian affairs is common in the army, there may be

* "The Indian Question." By Elwell S. Otis, Lieut.-Colonel U. S. Army. New York: Sheldon & Company. 1878.

propriety in hesitating as to the amount of control to be placed in the hands of military officers, when troublesome questions of law can be contrasted with the easy sword-exercise.

The author is certainly refreshingly original in his remarks about the reported frauds in the Indian Bureau, yet, however startling his propositions, they are consistent with his general determination to prove that whatever has been done in the old or is now done in the present system was and is wholly wrong, and therefore the less that was done in the direction of the same the better. Frauds, he says, undoubtedly prevailed, but under such circumstances of temptation and facility as to be unavoidable, and their effect was to keep at all events a portion of the objectionable annuities and gratuities from reaching the Indians, which was rather for their advantage as diminishing their degree of pauperism. He thinks the worst result has been to demoralize the enterprising white Western population, who shared largely in all illegitimate profits, and even yet will not allow an agent to be honest, should he try ever so hard. Though on this head the author gives some shrewd practical suggestions, clearly derived from personal observation, they will not contribute to the popularity of his volume in the Territories.

While much that is urged as to the outrageous cost and unwise direction of our past efforts to civilize the Indians must be acknowledged, the assertion that nothing of consequence has yet been accomplished is not well supported. Colonel Otis says that the best of them are only famed, and that such proofs of their civilization as can be offered are only externally impressed, and will disappear whenever the pressure may be removed; but he makes this dictum with almost no facts or figures from which it may logically be deduced. He is perfectly correct in his criticism on the expectations entertained and promises made to the public by the several philanthropic and religious commissions, that the native barbarians would in some short period of years be elevated to the plane now attained by us only after many centuries and under circumstances favorable to development; but any candid statement of what has actually been done, compared with the inherent difficulties as accurately presented by himself, would lead to a more sanguine conclusion. The future environments of the Indians can be made such as greatly to hasten their evolution, so long retarded, and, in the absence of race prejudice regarding intermarriage, amalgamation will assist in absorption. With special reference to these objects, and in virtual concession of their attainability, Col. Otis recommends that, instead of the plan now entertained of a few large reservations kept isolated from the whites, the tribes should be compelled to live upon a large number of small tracts, which should be located so as now or soon to be surrounded by a population of citizens. In pure theory this proposition is to be commended, for the best success in such a scheme as is now on trial in the Indian Territory can only prolong tribal power and customs and delay absorption; and if it is now confessed, contrary to the old dogma, that civilization will not kill the natives, it should be applied with much less insensible gradations than has hitherto been deemed judicious. The objections to the plan are purely practical, arising from the absence in our Government of any arbitrary power to sway many conflicting interests by the strong hand, persistently for many years. The more reservations, and the more they are in contact with settlers, the more they will produce grumbling and angry collision, with complaints to Congressmen both from their influential constituents and from the official guardians of maltreated wards. To multiply reservations now would certainly at first multiply points of resistance, and develop such active hostility, both on the Western war-path and in the still more dangerous Washington lobby, as would defeat or repeal any legislation. After one generation of local restraint, with diminishing external aid and increased self-support, compulsory education and gradual intercourse, all objections would probably be reconciled; but during the unavoidable crisis the opposition of both races from diverse reasons would require stringent, unprecedented, and odious laws to be imposed upon both by a force far beyond that now or likely to be entrusted to the Executive.

The respect which an educated commissioned officer entertains for the discipline of law in an orderly hierarchy, with its uncompromising execution, naturally leads Col. Otis to offer as a panacea the immediate subjection of our Indians to the general, and more especially to the criminal, code of the country, to be enforced so long as requisite by what he calls the police, but which necessarily would be the army. There can be little doubt that if our wards were those of the czar this project would long since have been resorted to, with more success than has attended our feeble and piecemeal expedients, but our Government does not yet permit the employment of such paternal strength. The hope to be found in a

gradual change of habits and character by the individual acquisition of real and personal property is not, indeed, wholly ignored in the treatise, but is noted as of secondary importance. There is no discussion upon the main and fundamental obstacle to the civilization of the Indians arising from their persistence in the archaic institution of consanguineous clanship or totemic connection. No statement can be complete which neglects this most important element, common to every linguistic stock found on this continent, which not only underlies but controls all their sociological divisions, and determines every relation of their lives, in especial preventing the idea of individual ownership, transmission, or even exclusive use of any description of property. Valuable as the present work is, viewed from the standpoint it presents, it is defective in that it fails to comprehend the esoteric characteristics of the race as essential features in its stage of evolution, and considers it as only an aggregation of individuals differing from us but in obvious degrees of mental, moral, and religious education.

Around the World in the Yacht "Sunbeam." By Mrs. Brassey. With illustrations. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1878.)—A family voyage around the world in a steam-yacht was never, we believe, before recorded, because it had never been undertaken. The interest of this daily log is therefore, first of all, personal and domestic, and for the rest we mostly have an agreeable retelling of what other travellers, of local or equally wide experience, have made pretty familiar to the diligent reader. The *Sunbeam* sailed from Cowes, England, July 6, 1876, and the Brassey family consisted of the well-known M. P. (here always irreverently spoken of as "Tom"), the author, and their four children—a younger Thomas, and the three Misses M. A. B. (for they all have the same fairylike initials), of whom the youngest was a baby, and came very near ending her days on the Pacific. Her oldest sister was almost washed overboard on the third day out, and as for Master Tom, he left the yacht at Rio to return to England, which leads Mrs. Brassey to remark: "It is extremely uncertain when we shall hear of our boy's safe arrival; not, I fear, until we get to Valparaiso, and then only by telegram—a long time to look forward to." The phrase "only by telegram," considering the points thus connected and the very simple nature of the message required, shows forcibly how commonplace the greatest marvels have become to our age and generation.

The safety of this floating household was assured as far as it could be by a Commander, R.N., a Captain, R.N.R., a sailing-master, and "Tom" himself, who kept the bridge in the more perilous passages, with a success highly creditable to an amateur. In the Pacific he sailed over a charted island without discovering it. He directed when to steam and when to sail. He had the great satisfaction of rescuing an English crew from their burning vessel, and the alarm of finding the *Sunbeam* twice on fire, though the danger was quickly averted by good discipline and the use of *extincteurs*. In heavy weather some spars were lost and a boat smashed, but the yacht came home as trim as at her departure. Mrs. Brassey's crushed thumb was the most serious accident of the voyage, and a case of small-pox among the seamen in the Straits the most threatening illness. But Mr. Brassey had the pain of learning by telegram at Yokohama of the death of his mother.

Of the people of Madeira Mrs. Brassey remarks that many of them "have never left their native villages, even to look at the magnificent view from the top of the surrounding mountains, or to gaze on the sea by which they are encompassed." Tenerife "appeared less perpendicular than we had expected, or than it is generally represented in pictures"; an observation which might also have been suggested by Fuzhi-yama, though she does not make it. Among the curious visitors to the yacht at Madeira were "some very handsome Spanish ladies, beautifully dressed in black, with mantillas, each of whom was accompanied by a young man carrying a basin. It must, I fear, be confessed that this was rather a trial to the gravity of all on board." Mrs. Brassey is here a little unfeeling, for, when the voyage of eleven months is half over, she can only say for herself: "Nothing annoys me more than to find that, after having sailed tens and tens of thousands of miles, I cannot cure myself of sea-sickness."

The first landfall after leaving African waters was Cape Frio:

"After even a fortnight at sea, an indescribable sensation is produced by this cry, and by the subsequent sight of the land itself. When we came up on deck this evening, after dinner, we all gazed on the lighthouse on the still-distant shore as if we had never beheld such a thing in our lives before. The color and temperature of the water had perceptibly changed, the former from a beautiful, clear, dark ultramarine to a muddy green; innumerable small birds, moths, locusts, and grasshoppers came

on board; and, having given special orders to be called early the next morning, we went to bed in the fond hope that we should be able to enter Rio harbor at daybreak."

Their disappointment in this regard was followed by wet and vaporous weather, which made their stay at Rio much less delightful than it would have been. In the Argentine Republic they were more fortunate, and, besides the usual sights of the country, they encountered a swarm of locusts—"first singly, and then in gradually increasing numbers, until each step became positively painful, owing to the smart blows we received from them on our heads, faces, and hands." On the pampas Mrs. Brassey joined in a deer hunt: "I and two others of the party followed the doe, and after another short burst of ten minutes, at a tremendous pace, we ran into and killed her. As soon as she had been despatched we wanted to follow the buck." The voyagers were doubly fortunate in having the finest weather throughout the Straits of Magellan. We will not quote Mrs. Brassey's description of the incomparable scenery, but here are two odd experiences a little later. At the point where a lake falls into the sea,

"The gig was drawn under this waterfall, and having been loaded to her thwarts with about three tons and a half of excellent water, she was then towed off to the yacht, where the water was emptied into our tanks, which were thus filled to the brim. A small iceberg, also towed alongside, afforded us a supply of ice; and we were thus cheaply provided with a portion of the requisite supplies for our voyage."

North of the Gulf of Peñas:

"A large shoal of whales came . . . swimming alongside, round us, across our bows, and even diving down under our keel. There was a shoal of small fish about, and the whales, most of which were about fifty or sixty feet in length, constantly opened their huge pink whalebone-fringed mouths so wide that we could see right down their capacious throats. The children were especially delighted with this performance, and baby has learned quite a new trick."

An earthquake was denied the travellers in Chile. Fairly launched on the Pacific, "this ocean seems to give one, in a strange way, a sense of solemn vastness, which was not produced to the same extent by the Atlantic. Whether this results from our knowledge of its size, or whether it is only fancy, I cannot say, but it is an impression which we all share." The interest of Mrs. Brassey's narrative culminates (speaking for ourselves) in the South Sea Islands, but we have not space for extracts, romantic as were the landings on some of the atolls before reaching Tahiti. The ascent of Kilaua from Hilo (Sandwich Islands) is well described, with impressive proofs of the hazard which always attends it. Japan was

reached in February's snow and sleet; of China only the southern ports were visited. From Canton the *Sunbeam* sailed homeward via Singapore, Ceylon, Aden, and the Suez Canal.

Each day's progress of the round voyage is marked on the chart accompanying the volume, and there are numerous illustrations; but Mrs. Brassey, who herself took photographs on the summit of Teneriffe and amid the glaciers of the Straits of Magellan, and bought freely at the various stations, might, we think, have done better with her material. In taking leave of her eminently pleasing work we must express the hope that she will choose the United States as the next field of her family wanderings. She already prefers our railway-cars to the "too familiar, close, stuffy, first-class carriage of English manufacture"; an American three-seated wagon at Tahiti (in which a Chinese coachman drove the party to a French restaurant) prompted the flattering remark that "our transatlantic cousins certainly understand thoroughly, and do their best to improve everything connected with, the locomotion they love so well"; moreover (still at Tahiti), "American tinned fruits and vegetables beat English ones hollow"; and finally, the American ships' compasses at Hong Kong were "not in the least affected by the climate," whereas the English became unusable. All this ensures Mrs. Brassey a warm welcome in "the States," which will be still warmer if she will in a second edition correct the opinion of Messrs. Smales Brothers (p. 117), that the English are more ready than the Americans to help distressed vessels at sea. A minor correction will place the beautiful Percé Rock on the coast of Lower Canada, and not (p. 13) on that of Nova Scotia.

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Life premiums due and unpaid	50,703 21
United States Government bonds	51,110 69
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Bank and Insurance stocks	221,485 20
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Total Assets	\$4,453,393 89

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Reserve for reinsurance, Accident Department	208,654 64
Claims unadjusted and not due, and all other liabilities	123,670 00
Total Liabilities	\$3,227,006 18
Surplus as regards Policy-holders	\$1,225,484 71

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